

# ITALY TO-DAY

## FORTNIGHTLY BULLETIN

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## ITALIA REDENTA

For fifteen centuries after the fall of the Roman Empire, Italy was victim of foreign invasion and domination, of dissension and strife among the various states into which it was divided. The Middle Ages saw glorious resistance of the Lombard League to the German Emperor and rise of the Italian Comuni, free and democratic States, that in successive centuries had to give way to principalities and dukedoms or were compelled to surrender to foreign invaders. The Napoleonic era brought with the creation of the Kingdom of Italy: this was, however, only an appendage to the great empire founded by the Corsican adventurer. But, in spite of that, it was a beginning of unity, and undoubtedly it helped to foster that feeling of hope in a final reunion into a free state of the different parts of Italy that was to lead to the formation of the Kingdom of Italy under Victor Emanuel II.

The Congress of Vienna placed the whole of Italy under that direct and indirect Austrian dominion, from which the Italians freed themselves after an epic and romantic struggle.

Around the only liberal sovereign of the peninsula, the King of Sardinia, all the forces of liberal Italy gathered together. Cavour and Mazzini, the diplomat and the apostle, Garibaldi and Victor Emanuel II, the hero and the "King Galantuomo" were the leaders of a legion of patriots. Through them the movement for the unification of Italy was brought almost to a successful conclusion.

First Lombardy was liberated in 1859; Tuscany, Central Italy, Naples and Sicily in 1860 and 1861; Venetia in 1866 and Rome in 1870.

And now, at the end of the Great War, the unity of Italy is at last completed. The ancient Italian lands of Trentino and Istria, and the other lands that for hundreds of years were part of the Republic of Venice, are all now reunited to the mother country, to free, democratic Italy, proud of her past, proud of her present, ready to every effort for a glorious future.



1. Victor Emanuel III., King of Italy.

2. Queen Elena in the uniform of  
a Red Cross Nurse

3. General Armando Diaz

4. Admiral Umberto Cagni,  
Governor of Fuime

5. General Petitti di Roretto  
Governor of Trieste

## The Redeemed Lands

### Trentino

In the year 1027 the Emperor Conrad II bestowed all temporal power in the region of Trent on the Bishop, and for eight centuries after that the Trentino was an independent and autonomous state, recognizing no foreign sovereignty. The Bishop of Trent retained his temporal powers till 1803, when they passed to Austria. Two years after, in 1805, the principality of Trent was by the treaty of Pressburg ceded by Austria to Bavaria; five years later by the treaty of Paris of February 28, 1810, the Trentino became a part of the Kingdom of Italy founded by Napoleon, and assumed the official name of "Department of the High Adige." At the fall of Napoleon the Trentino returned under the dominion of Austria, to which it was to remain subject until the year 1918.

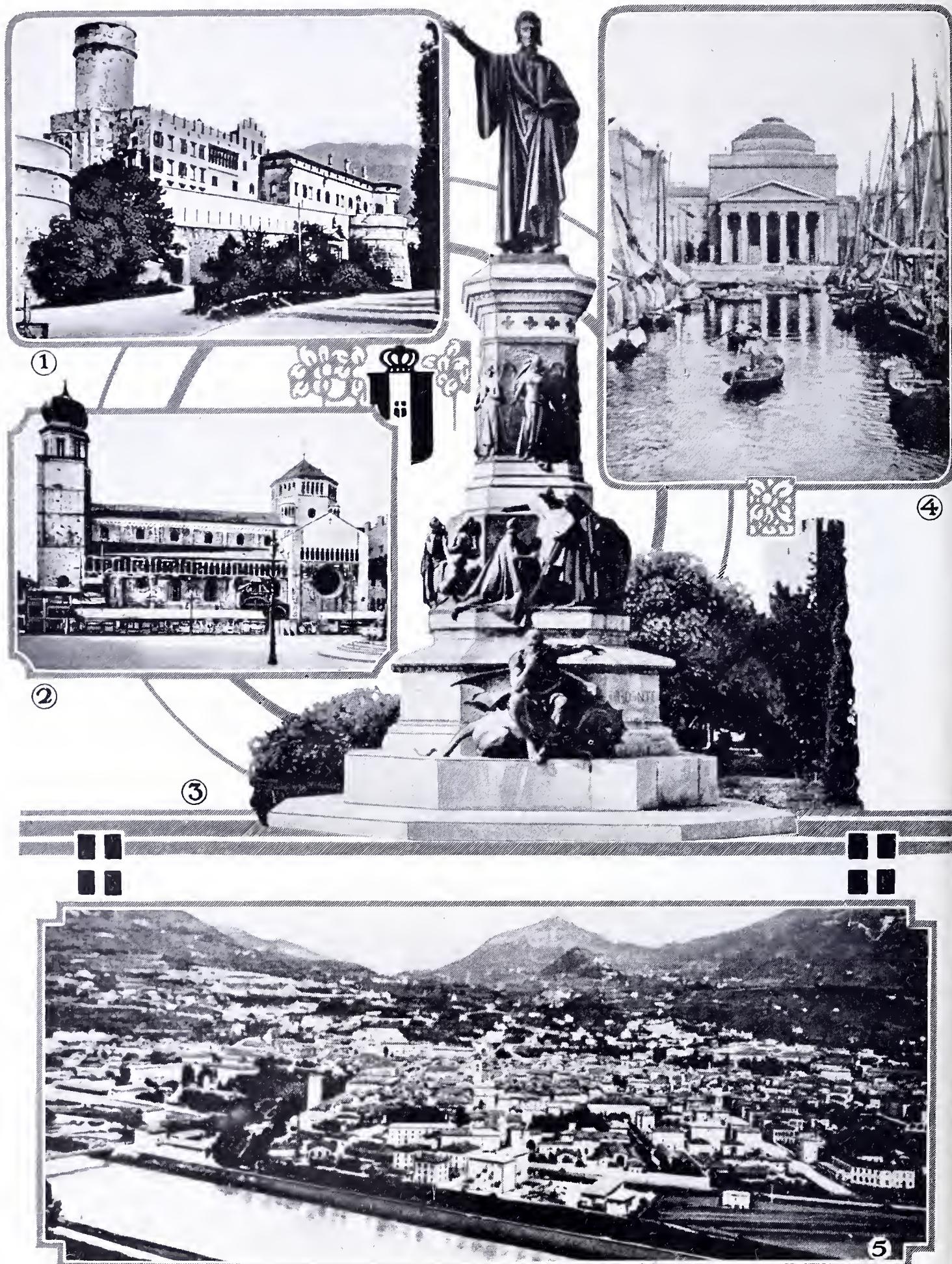
Such, briefly, is the history of this region. But throughout the centuries of independent life and the decades of subjection to the Empire of the Hapsburgs, the Trentino has kept unchanged its Italian character. Every town and village of the valley of the Adige bears an Italian name and is peopled by Italians. Ala, Mori, Rovereto and Calliano are types of these Italian communities. Throughout mediaeval times and till the end of the eighteenth century, when an ineffectual germanization of the official life of the region began, historical records make mention of the Italian character of its industrial and commercial life.

The splendor of the Italian Renaissance stamped its mark over the whole region of the Trentino. Castles and churches show the influence of Italian architectural style. Statues and bas-reliefs in the towns of this region also bear witness to the Italian taste of its inhabitants.

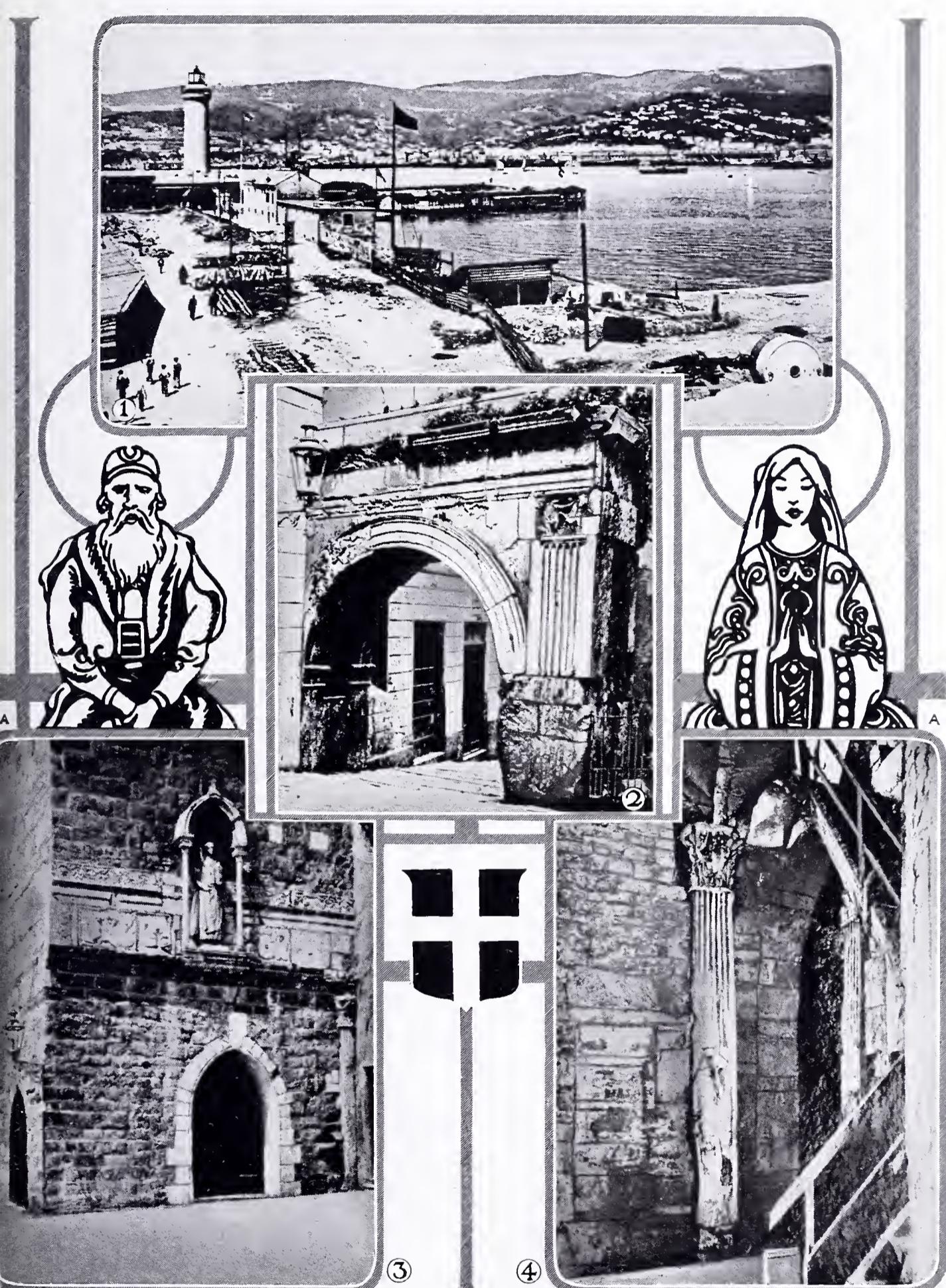
### Istria

From the thirteenth to the end of the eighteenth century Istria was a dependency of the Republic of Venice. It remained under this rule till the peace of Campoformio in 1797, when Austria acquired it, together with Venice itself and all other lands of the ancient republic of the Doges. By the peace of Pressburg, Austria was, in 1805, compelled to cede Istria to Napoleon who incorporated the region in the newly formed Kingdom of Italy but in 1814 Austria again seized it and has retained it until the end of the Great War.

Istria was as thoroughly Roman a province as Venetia; she fought the barbarians of past ages as bravely; she clung to the Roman government of Ravenna until her own free communes arose, as on the mainland opposite; and in the thirteenth century she came under the protection of Venice, whose soft dialect is still the speech of all her seaport towns and inland cities. Not till Napoleon's ambition led him to use Venice as a pawn with Austria was Istria severed from Italy; and even then, she was reunited with Italy from 1806 to 1814. Austria, then, has



1. Trento - Castle of Buon Consiglio.
2. Cathedral at Trento, Northern View.
3. Trento - Monument to Dante.
4. Trieste - View from the Grand Canal.
5. Panorama of Trento.



### TRIESTE

1. View of the harbor.
2. Arch of Riccardo.
3. Lower Door of the Campanile.
4. Roman remains in the Campanile of the Cathedral.

had just a century in which to win Istrian allegiance; and she has made use of every device known to the Teuton. By wholesale importation she has tried to make the countryside Slav; but Italians still are paying five-sixths of the rent tax, three-quarters of the industrial tax, four-fifths of the income tax.

Historically, Istria is a segment of Italy. Geographically, she is as truly Italian. Italy is bounded by the Alps and the three seas; and the Julian Alps swing across the base of Istria, divide it off from the Slav hinterland, and give it, by their protection, a Mediterranean climate, with the olive groves and the vineyards so characteristic of Italy.

Venice built her palaces of Istrian stone and her galleys of Istrian timber; Carpaccio and Schiavone were painters as Italian as their contemporaries of the peninsula. It is a noble series of Italian names from Istria that is crowned by that of Nazario Sauro of Capodistria, the devoted mariner who gave to Italy his knowledge of Istrian coasts and harbors when the war broke out, and on whom Austria has wreaked vengeance, and she has on Cesare Battisti, the former Deputy from Trent. From Alboin, the Lombard town, the Teuton has never failed to add some tragic compelling touch to his maladroit efforts at controlling Latin peoples; the scaffolds of Battisti and of Sauro serve as a reminder to Italy and to the world of what would have been in store if Austria had remained on Italian soil.

*Page eight*

### Dalmatia

Peopled by Illyrians, with some Greek colonies on the sea coast, Dalmatia was Roman from the second century B. C. until the fall of the Western Empire. Four Roman Emperors were Dalmatians, amongst whom was Diocletian, founder of Spalato.

On the fall of Rome it was in Dalmatia that the Western Empire still survived for some decades.

The Dalmatian cities, prosperous Latin communities, governed themselves freely even after the fall of Rome, obeying their own laws and statutes which were purely Italo-Roman in character, untainted by German barbarian feudalism. At first they were under the protection of the Roman Empire of the East, and subsequently they became independent republics, following the example of the free Italian communes. In 1409 they passed definitely under Venetian rule, which retained suzerainty over them until 1797, though they always retained their municipal autonomy.

Toward the year 1000 small Slav principalities arose in the inland part of Dalmatia; their rule, however, never extended to the coast towns, which always remained free and Italian. Indeed these insignificant Slavonian lordships soon became Italian, so that Venice was able to assume undisputed rule over the whole of Dalmatia.

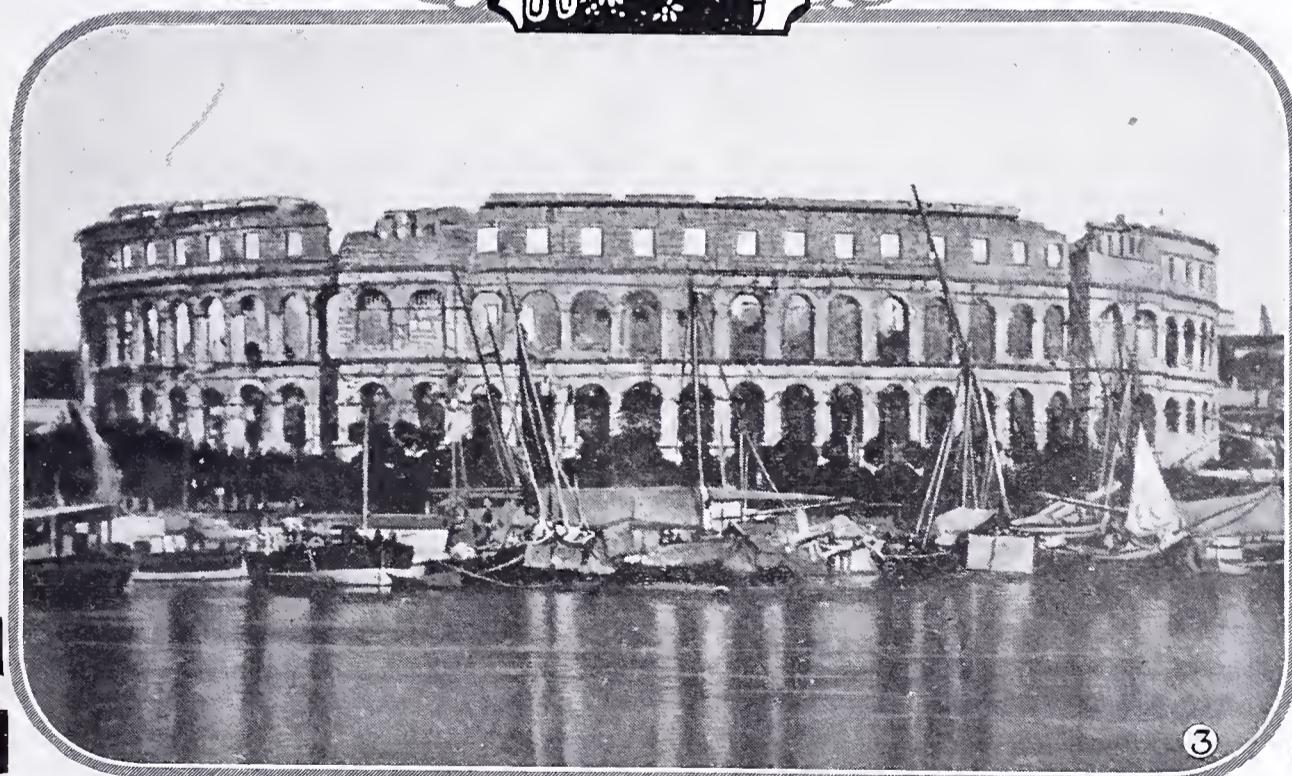
In 1815 Dalmatia came again under Austrian rule as having formed part of the Kingdom of Italy of Napoleon I.



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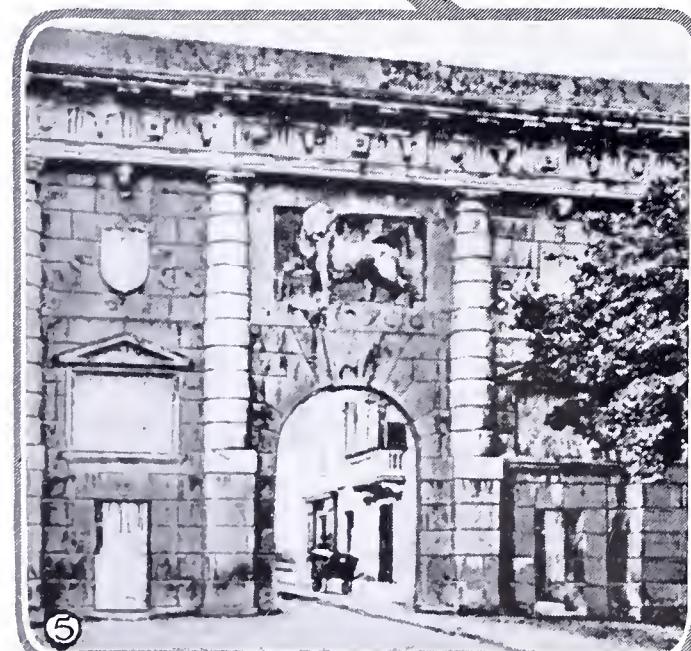
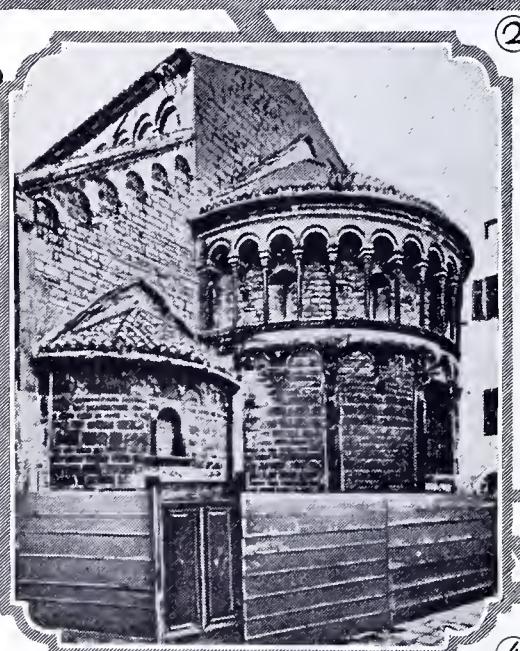
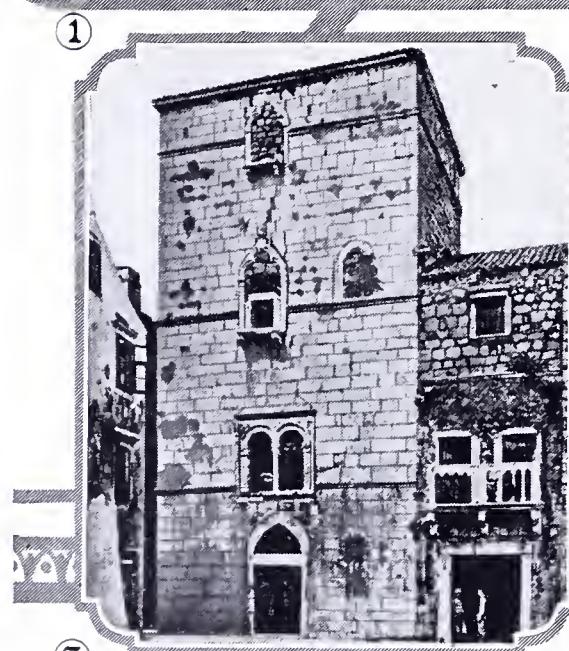
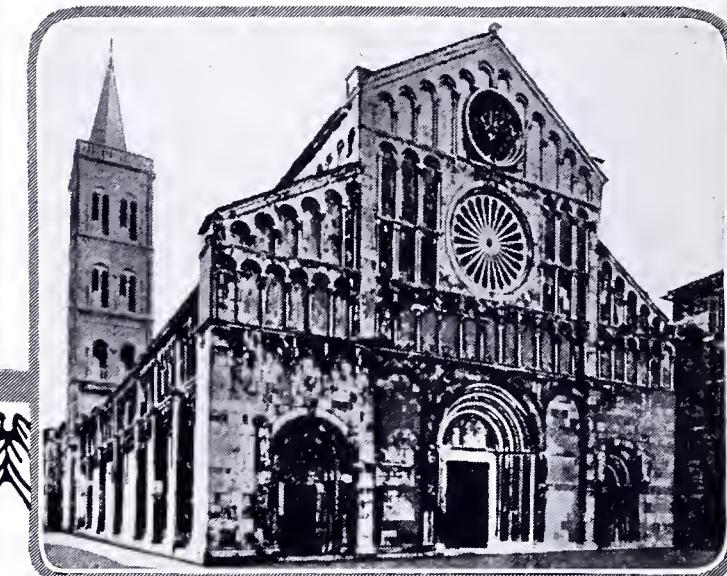
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POLA.

1. Roman Arch.
2. Temple of Augustus.
3. Old Roman Amphitheater.



### ZARA

1. Interior of the Cathedral. 2. The Cathedral. 3. A Venetian Castle at Arbe  
4. Church of St. Grisogono. 5. Main Gate. 6. Courtyard of a private residence

Austria respected the Italian character of Dalmatia until 1866; but after the loss of Lombardy and Venetia a policy was adopted which aimed at fostering the Croatian element in this region. Little by little, by means of violence and fraud, the municipalities of the Dalmatian cities, which had been Italian for centuries, passed into the hands of the Slavs; in 1870 Sebenico, in 1883 Spalato (the last "podestà" of Spalato, Dr. Antonio Balmonti, was a distinguished writer and patriot), in 1897 Cattaro (podestà Pezzi), in 1899 Ragusa (podestà Baron Gondola), and so forth. Courageous Zara alone managed to hold out, and preserved intact its Italian patrimony and Italian municipality until Austria, taking advantage of the present war, dissolved the town council.

But ever since the Croatian invasion of Dalmatia was begun, as the several centres of resistance gradually passed into the hands of the Austrophilous Slavs, the government at Vienna, and with its consent, and sometimes without it, the Slavs themselves, illegally closed the Italian schools so as to deprive the Italian population even of this essential spiritual nutriment. Zara alone, proudly withstanding all assaults, was able to keep her schools. In all the rest of Dalmatia no Italian schools remained except those privately supported by citizens at their own expense by means of the National Leagues.

The eminent geographer Leon Dominian in his book on "The Frontiers of Language and Nationality" published by the American Geographical Society,

renders justice to the Italian character of Dalmatian civilization and culture. The following are quotations from the chapter on "Borderlands of the Italian Language."

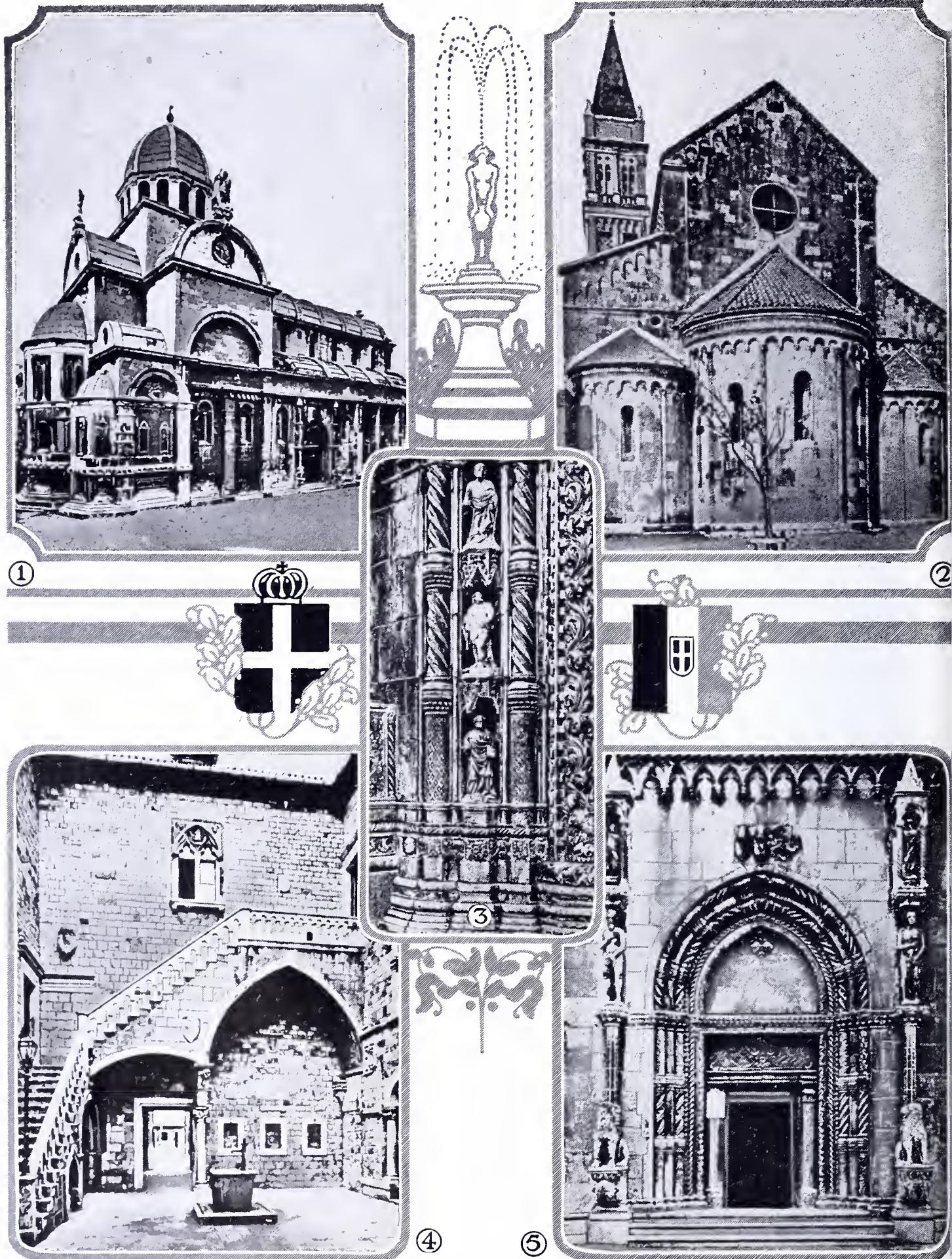
"The history of this coastal land (of Dalmatia) is Italian in spite of the showing of census returns as to the numerical inferiority of Italians within its limits. Rome had reached Dalmatia and the Near East by way of the Adriatic. A whole chain of imposing ruins extended to the wild Albania shores bears the unmistakable impression of Roman splendor. In the partition of the Roman Empire in 225 A. D., Dalmatia was assigned to the western and not to the Eastern half. The period of its subjection to Venetian rule is one of the most brilliant in its history. All the civilization it received came from the west."

"The fact is that the Italian element has always been predominant. Dalmatia has always greeted Italian thought as the heritage of Rome and Venice. Its history, its most notable monuments and its whole culture are products of either Roman or Venetian influence. The maritime cities in particular still remain strongholds of Italian thought. Almost every one boasts of a native son who has distinguished himself in the cause of Italy."

"The Italians in Dalmatia constitute the progressive and educated element of the population. The mass of the Slavic element is uneducated."

### Fiume

Geography.—Fiume, situated at the eastern base of the Istrian peninsula, belongs geographically



SEBENICO

1. Cathedral.
3. Detail of Cathedral.
5. Entrance to Cathedral.

TRAÙ

2. Cathedral (Aps.)
4. Entrance to Municipal Building.

to Istria to which it belonged politically until 1776.

The eastern frontier of Istria, which some place at the Arsa, the original frontier to the tenth Augustean Region, is really formed by the watershed of the

ness to its uninterruptedly Italian character, which victoriously survived the Slav invasion in the seventh century that, for a time, seemed to have submerged everything.

In 1776 Maria Theresa made



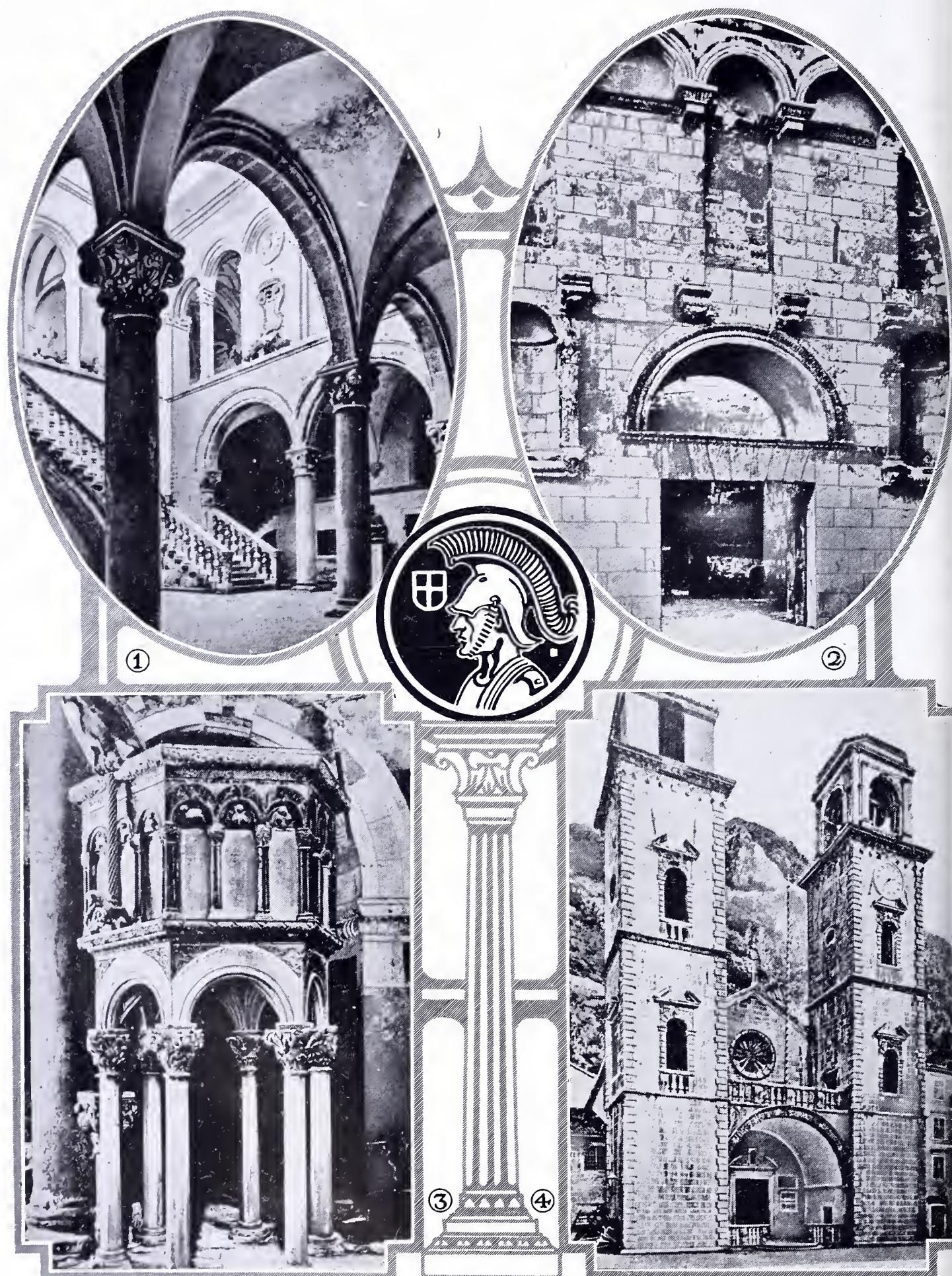
View of the Harbor of Fiume, at present occupied by Italian Forces.

Julian Alps which descend to the sea at the "Canale della Mognana," opposite the head-land of St. Mark, near the island of Veglia.

Fiume, which was from its foundation a free municipality, as for some time under the dominion of the Franks, after which it became successively a fief of the archbishop of Pedana, of the bishop of Pola, of the lords of Duino, of the Hapsburgs, of the Lords of Walsee, and then again of the Hapsburgs. All known documents relating to the city of Fiume bear wit-

over Fiume to Hungary and—as a result of the protest of the inhabitants—a royal decree of April 23, 1779, proclaimed it to be a "separate body annexed to the crown of the kingdom of Hungary."

In 1848 it was taken from Hungary by the Croatians of the Ban Jelacic, who held on to it for nineteen years without succeeding, spite of tenacious endeavors in undermining its Italian character, and in 1867, on the dualistic settlement between Austria and Hungary, it was restored to this latter.



1. Ragusa-Courtyard of the Government Palace (Palazzo del Rettore). 2. The Golden Gate (Porta Aurea) at Spalato. 3. Romanesque Pulpit in the Cathedral at Spalato. 4. Cathedral of Cattara.

In 1863 the so-called "deputations of the kingdom of Hungary, Croatia and Fiume" met at Budapest and decided that "the free city of Fiume and its territory" should remain, in accordance with the charter of 1779, a separate body provisionally annexed to Hungary "corpus separatum adnexum sacrae Regni bronae."

In the first years after 1868 the autonomy and the Italian character of Fiume were respected. But for nearly twenty years the aliens of Fiume, harassed on all sides, struggling against the Croatians and the Magyars who have done everything in their power to denationalize them,

have been engaged in a desperate but so far victorious fight in defense of their threatened Italian nationality.

The Italian character of Fiume is irrefutably proved even by the government census returns.

These figures show that in 1910 there were 24,000 Italians in Fiume (exclusive of some 6,000 Italian citizens most of them natives of Fiume), 12,000 Slavs (Croatians, Serbs, and some Slovacs) and 6,400 Magyars.

The fact is that before the war at least 35,000 of the 54,000 inhabitants of Fiume were Italians, that is to say 65 per cent as compared to 28 per cent of Slavs and 6 per cent of Magyars.

## **New Canals Connecting Milan and Venice**

A new inland waterway connecting Chioggia, which faces Venice, with the Po River has been opened in Italy. This is part of the great inland development planned to connect Venice by water with Milan, which is an inland city on the tributary of the Po.

The new route goes from Chioggia to Brondolo on the Brenta River, from there by canal to the Adige River, follows the Adige, and then by a new canal to the Po River, which is the main river in the broad basin of northern Italy, and which flows inland to its source about 200 miles. Milan is on one of the branches of the Po, and the plan is to make an uninterrupted

inland water route, fit for use in all seasons, by means of which ships of 600-ton capacity can go from Venice to Milan.

The new tract recently opened is about 15 miles long. Its advantages over the old line are that it eliminates many devious curves, is shorter by about four miles, and may be traversed by ships of 600-ton capacity whereas the largest ship which could pass through the old route was of 200-ton capacity.

The supports for the canals are built in reinforced concrete. The project represents one of the greatest experiments of its kind ever attempted in Italy.

## **Text of the Treaty of London**

**Concluded on April 26, 1915, and first published by  
the Soviet of Russia in November, 1917**

I. The Great Powers of France, Great Britain, Russia and Italy shall, without delay, draw up a military convention, by which are to be determined the minimums of military forces which Russia will be bound to place against Austria-Hungary in the event of the latter throwing all her forces against Italy. This military convention will also regulate the problems relating to a possible armistice, in so far as these do not by their very nature fall within the competence of their Supreme Command.

II. Italy on her part undertakes to conduct the war with all means at her disposal, in agreement with France, Great Britain and Russia, and against the states which are at war with them.

III. The naval forces of France and Great Britain will lend Italy their active co-operation until such time as the Austrian fleet shall be destroyed, or till the conclusion of peace. France, Great Britain and Italy shall in this connection conclude without delay a naval convention.

IV. By the future treaty of peace Italy shall receive: the Trentino; the whole of Southern Tyrol, as far as its natural and geographical frontier, the Brenner; the city of Trieste and its surroundings; the county of Friaul and Fradisca; the whole of Istria as far as the Quarnero, including Volosca and the Istrian

Islands, Cherso and Lussiu, and also the lesser islands of Plavnik, Union, Canidoli, Paluzznolo, Pietro Nero, Asinello, and Gruica with their neighboring islets.

Note 1.—In carrying out what is said in Article IV, the frontier line shall be drawn along the following points: from the summit of Umbrile northwards to the Stelvio, then along the watershed of the Rhaetian Alps as far as the sources of the rivers Adige and Eisach, then across the Mounts Reschem and Brenner and the Etz and Ziller peak. The frontier then turns southwards, touching Mount Voblač in order to reach the present frontier of Carinola, which near the Alps. Along this frontier the line will reach Mount Tarvis and will follow the watershed of the Julian Alps beyond the crests of Predil, Mongar and Biscorno, and the passes of Podberdo, Podlanski and Zdrič. From here the line will run in southeast direction towards the Schneeberg, in such a way as not to include the basin of the Save and its tributaries in Italian territory. From the Schneeberg the frontier will descend toward the seacoast, including Castri, Matuglia, and Volosca as Italian districts.

V. In the same way Italy shall receive the province of Dalmatia in its present extent, including further to the north Dissarik and Triboje, and to the south

all places as far as a line starting from the sea close to Cape Planca and following the water-line eastward in such a way as to place in Italian hands all the valleys whose rivers enter the sea near Sebenico—namely, the Cikola, Krka, and Butisnjica, with their tributaries. To Italy also will belong all the islands north and west of the Dalmatian coast, beginning with Brennda, Selve, Ubbo, Skerda, Moan, Pago and Puntadura and further north, and reaching to Meleda southwards with the addition of the islands of S. Andrea, Busi, Lissa, Cesina, Cercola, Curzola, Cazza and Leugosta and all the surrounding islets and rocks, and hence Pelagosa also, but without the islands of Grande and Piccola, Zirona, Buje, Solta and Brazza.

The following shall be neutralized: (1) The whole coast from Cape Planca on the north to the southern point of the peninsula of Sabbiancello on the south, this peninsula being included in the neutral zone. (2) Part of the coast from a point 10 kilometres south of Ragusavecchia as far as the river Vojussa to the south, so as to include in the neutralized zone the whole half of Cattaro with its ports, Antivari, Dulcigno, S. Giovanni di Medua, and Durazzo; with the reservation that Montenegro's rights are not to be infringed, in so far as they are based on the declarations exchanged between the contracting parties in April and May, 1909. These rights being recognized solely for Montenegro's present possession, they will not be extended to such regions and ports as may in the future be assigned to Montene-

gro. Hence no part of the coast which to-day belongs to Montenegro, shall be subject to neutralization in the future. But all legal restrictions regarding the port of Antivari—to which Montenegro herself gave her adhesion in 1909—remain in vigor. (3) All the islands not assigned to Italy.

**Note 2.**—The following districts of the Adriatic shall by the work of the Entente Powers be included in the territory of Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro: To the north of the Adriatic the whole coast beginning at the Gulf of Volosca, near the frontier of Italy as far as the northern frontier of Dalmatia, including the whole coast to-day belonging to Hungary; the whole coast of Croatia, the port of Fiume, and the small ports of Nevi and Carispago, and in the same way the islands of Veglia, Pervico, Gregorio, Kali, and Arbe; to the south of the Adriatic, where Serbia and Montenegro are interested, the whole coast from Cape Planka to the river Drin; with the very important ports of Spalato, Ragusa, Cattaro, Antivari, Dulcigno and S. Giovanni di Medua, as also the islands of Grande and Piccola, to Zirona, Buja, Solta, Brazza, Cikljan, and Calamotta. The port of Durazzo can be assigned to the independent Mohammedan State of Albania.

VI. Italy shall obtain in full ownership Valona, the island of Saseno, and territory of sufficient extent to assure her against dangers of a military kind—approximately between the River Vonissa to the north and east, and the district of Shimar to the south.

VII. Having obtained Trentino and Istria by Article IV, Dalmatia and the Adriatic islands by Article V, and also the Gulf of Valona, Italy undertakes, in the event of a small autonomous and neutralized state being formed in Albania, not to oppose the possible desire of France, Great Britain and Russia to partition the northern and southern districts of Albania between Montenegro, Serbia and Greece. The southern coast of Albania, from the frontier of the Italian territory of Valona to Cape Stilos, is to be neutralized.

To Italy will be conceded the right of conducting the foreign relations of Albania; in any case Italy will be bound to secure for Albania a territory sufficiently extensive to enable its frontiers to join those of Greece and Serbia to the east of Lake of Ohrida.

VIII. Italy shall obtain full possession of all the islands of the Dodecannese, at present occupied by her.

IX. France, Great Britain, and Russia recognize as an axiom the fact that Italy is interested in maintaining the political balance of power in the Mediterranean, and her right to take over, when Turkey is broken up, a portion equal to theirs in the Mediterranean—namely, in that part which borders on the province of Adalia, where Italy has already acquired special rights and interests, laid down in the Italo-British convention. The zone to be assigned to Italy will, in due course, be fixed in accordance with the vital interests of France and Great Britain. In the same way regard must be had for the

interests of Italy, even in the event of the Powers maintaining for a further period of time the inviolability of Asiatic Turkey, and merely proceeding to map out spheres of interest among themselves. In the event of France, Great Britain and Russia occupying during the present war districts of Asiatic Turkey, the whole district bordering on Adatin and defined above in greater detail, shall be reserved to Italy, which reserves the right to occupy it.

X. In Libya, Italy obtains recognition of all those rights and prerogatives hitherto reserved to the Sultan by the Treaty of Lausanne.

XI. Italy shall receive a military contribution corresponding to her strength and sacrifices.

XII. Italy associates herself with the declaration made by France, Great Britain, and Russia, by which the Mohammedan holy places are to be left in the possession of an independent Mohammedan state.

XIII. In the event of an extension of the French and British colonial possessions in Africa at the expense of Germany, France and Great Britain recognize in principle the right of Italy to demand for herself certain compensations, in the form of an extension of her possession in Entren Somaliland, Libya, and the colonial districts bordering on French and British colonies.

XIV. Great Britain undertakes to facilitate for Italy without delay and on favorable conditions the conclusion of a loan in the London market, amounting to not less than £50,000,000.

XV. France, Great Britain and Russia undertake to support Italy, in so far as she does not permit the representatives of the Holy See to take diplomatic action with regard to the conclusion of peace and the regulation of questions connected with the war.

XVI. The present treaty is to be kept secret as regards Italy's adherence to the declaration of September 5, 1914. This shall only be published after the declaration of war by and upon Italy.

The representatives of France, Great Britain, and Russia, having taken cognizance of this memorandum, and being furnished with powers for this pur-

pose, agreed as follows with the representative of Italy, who was also authorized by his Government for this purpose:

France, Great Britain and Russia declare their full agreement with the present memorandum presented to them by the Italian Government. With regard to points I. II and III (relating to the co-ordination of the military and naval operations of all four Powers), Italy declared that she will enter the war actively as soon as possible, and in any case not later than one month after the signature of the present document on behalf of the contracting parties.

(Signed in four copies, April 26, 1915.)

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## Italy to Establish Banks in Trieste

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Branch banks in Trento and Trieste, the Italian territories recently redeemed from the Austrians, will be established soon by the Bank of Rome, the Bank of Italy, the Italian Discount Bank and the Italian Commercial Bank, which are among the most important banks in Italy. These banks are the pioneers in the movement to further economic relations between Italy and the redeemed lands. They have offered money to the governors of these territories for immediate distribution to the needy population.

## Germans and Austrians in Fiume Pose as Jugo-Slavs

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Reports that certain Jugo-Slavs in the redeemed lands of Italy are really Austrians and Germans in disguise are being circulated by a newspaper of Rome, Italy. The newspaper reports that among the alleged Jugo-Slavs in Fiume, many were found of pure German ancestry, and on them are blamed the few disturbances which have occurred among the Italians and the Slavs. These Germans and Austrians, posing as Jugo-Slavs, are exerting all their efforts to create dissatisfaction and friction between the Italians and the real Jugo-Slavs.

## Completion of Italian Unity

The conditions stipulated by the Allies for the armistice on the Austro-Hungarian front contain a clause which, representing in some fashion an anticipation of the rightful Italian aspirations in the Alps and on the Adriatic, forms an element of fundamental importance for the reconstruction of Europe, for the day of peace. This clause (the third in the text of the armistice) establishes:

Evacuation of all territories invaded by Austria-Hungary since the beginning of the war.

Withdrawal within such periods as shall be determined by the Commander-in-Chief of the Allied forces on each front of the Austro-Hungarian armies behind a line fixed as follows: From Pic Umbrail to the north of the Stelvio it will follow the crest of the Rhetian Alps up to the sources of the Adige and the Eisack, passing thence by Mounts Reschen and Brenner and the heights of Oetz and Zoaller. The line thence turns south, crossing Mount Toblach and meeting the present frontier along the Carnic Alps. It follows this frontier up to Mount Tarvis, and after Mount Tarvis the watershed of the Julian Alps by the Col of Prédil, Mount Mangart, the Tricorno (Triglav) and the watershed of the Cols di Podherdo, Podlaniscam and Idria. From this point the line turns southeast toward the Schneeberg, excludes the whole basin of the Save and its tributaries. From Schneeberg it goes down toward the coast in such a way as to include Castua, Mattuglia and Volosca in the evacuated territories.

It will also follow the administrative limits of the present province of Dalmatia, including the north of Liscara and Trivania, and to the south territory limited by a line from the (Semigrand)

Cape Planca to the summits of the watersheds eastward so as to include in the evacuated area all the valleys and water courses flowing toward Sebenico, such as the Cicola, Kerka, Butisnica and their tributaries. It will also include all the islands in the north and west of Dalmatia from Premuda, Selve, Ulbo, Scherda, Maon, Paga and Puntadura, in the north up to Melada, in the south embracing Santandrea, Busi, Lissa, Lesina, Torcola, Curzola, Cazza and Lagosta, as well as the neighboring rocks and islets and passages only excepting the islands of Great and Small Zirona, Bua, Solta and Brazza.

### Italian Guarantees

As is seen, and as has been noted by the press of the whole world, this line of occupation corresponds in all its details to the line defined in the Treaty of London between Italy, France, England and Russia, April 20, 1915, on the eve of Italian intervention. In drawing up this treaty Italy stipulated the fundamental conditions of her national reconstruction and of her liberty, she asked the redemption of her population within the Austrian Empire and asked her natural boundaries, the line of divide of her rivers, the line of defense of her mountain. She asked, in fact, to be free and safe in her own territory, reconquering to herself the gates of invasion of this territory, which Austria has been able to hold since 1866 and which, with the formidable menace, had represented for fifty years a true and actual oppression of Austria's policy upon Italian policy.

This is the spirit and the function of the Treaty of London. The Allies and the United States, subscribing to the conditions of armistice, which have determined a line of occupation by the Italian troops corresponding exactly to the boundary line determined in the Treaty of London, have implicitly and concretely recognized not only the perfect validity of the treaty itself but also the absolute and immediate necessities which it meets. The Allies and the United States have given specific proof that they consider the integral fulfilment of these necessities as the basis of the Italian policy and of the relations between the Allies and Italy.

In this sense the third article of the treaty of armistice with Austria has an exceptional political importance. As against an insinuating campaign aimed at the falsification of the true ends and the true spirit of the Italian war, it reaffirms the perfect harmony of these ends and of this spirit with the general ends and with the spirit of the war of the Allies and of the United States, and it marks the first concrete and precise lines of the future disposition of Europe.

#### **Austrian Military Preparation**

As we said, Austria obtained in 1866 a military boundary which assured her an absolute preponderance over Italy. She had in her hands all the dominant positions, all the outlets to the sea, all the ports, all the roads; in the Trentino she held directly the military control of Lombardy and of Venetia, with Pola she held the dominion of the Upper Adriatic, with Dalmatia the dominion of

the Middle Adriatic, with the mouths of Cattaro the dominion of the Lower Adriatic. From the Stelvio to the mouths of Cattaro she built a line of true suffocation of the Italian nation.

From the Trentino all the valleys lead toward the east as well as toward the west into the heart of the richest and most industrious zones of Italy. Austria kept these valleys, which means practically the possibility of transporting from the Trentino toward the east and toward the west into Lombardy and into Venetia her armies and her war, that aggressive war which she was preparing equally against Italy and against Serbia; in fact, more against Italy, which represented a greater and more immediate danger to the conservation of her monstrous regime of oppression because of the movements of the Italian Irredentist against the empire. These two problems were naturally connected before the Government of Vienna. As she held in the Alps and in the Adriatic an absurd boundary, which violated every right of the populations, so on this side of the boundary, in the Italian lands remaining within the empire, the Government of Vienna oppressed these populations and their liberty; on the boundary the colossal preparations for the invasion of Italy, in the interior the fiercest persecution to denationalize Italia Irredenta, to destroy its character, to annihilate its civilization.

#### **Conrad and Beck**

The year 1866 marks the beginning of this double military and national policy. Before 1866 the Austrians, having the gov-

## The Italian Bureau of Public Information

ernment of Venetia besides that of the Trentino, exercised a direct pressure upon Italian life, and the Italians of the empire, represented a political force of notable importance; the Italian danger was not great, and the Imperial Government followed a policy of rigid control but not of destruction. When, however, Venetia was lost, and the ethnic internal force of the Italians therefore weakened, Austria initiated her policy of extermination. The entire action of the Austrian Government in these fifty years has been founded upon these two principles: Armaments on the Italian front, destruction of the Italian character in the regions of the Trentino and of the Adriatic. Marshal Conrad was the tenacious supporter of the punitive war against Italy, a war which should have restored to Austria the direct control of the peninsula; and it was Baron Beck, Prime Minister during the period of the Bosnian crisis, who, presenting to Parliament his bills for the reform of the electoral system in the municipality of Triest, declared that it was necessary to *re-enforce the idea of an Austrian State as against the Italians.* These were the two instruments of one and the same program and of one and the same action.

The general directives of the Austrian policy led the empire to exert a pressure toward the southern seas; a pressure direct upon the Adriatic, indirect and remote upon the Aegean. At the time of the Bosnian crisis the pressure of the Adriatic had a decided prevalence. Austria, in all the time from the retirement of the Austrian troops from the

Sanjak of Novibazar (1908) to the second Balkan War, brought her greatest effort to bear upon Istria and Dalmatia, and toward Albania; that is, upon the Italian lands of the empire and on the borders of Italy.

It is well known that in January, 1909, when Italy bowed under the tragic weight of the earthquake of December 28 which had destroyed entire cities of Calabria and of Sicily and overturned flourishing agricultural and maritime regions the Austrian military circle tried to profit by the Italian disaster and start the long-prepared war; it is well known that the same attempt was repeated in 1912, when Italy was engaged in the Tripolitanian War, the first blow to the military power of the Turkish empire and the first assistance to the Balkan nations to Serbia, to Bulgaria and to Greece, which awaited their war of liberty. The European war begun by Austria as an anti-Serbian war had always been conceived and prepared for as a anti-Italian war.

### **Denationalization**

In the empire the Italians found themselves in absolute minority before every nationality. Their strength was all in the fact that on the other side of the boundaries there existed an Italian state. But precisely because it was such, because it was not an internal force of the monarchy, but an external and therefore negative to the interests of the empire, was it a fundamental necessity for the empire to eliminate it.

In order well to understand the history of the relations b

ween Austria and Italy, in order to understand well the condition of the Italians in Austria, the Italian needs and therefore the Treaty of London and the third clause of the armistice of Nov. 4, we must start from this point: Austria wished to destroy the Italian Irredentist population, to transform the Trentino, Istria and Dalmatia from Italian lands into Germanic or Slavic or Magyar lands; to maintain in these lands thus denationalized a fierce anti-Italian sentiment, in such a way as to constitute between Italy and the empire a national barrier, to serve as a re-enforcement to the military barrier which she had been able to obtain in 1866. The story of this struggle at Trento, at Trieste, at Zara is one of the most heroic pages of the struggle of a small minority against the fierce oppression of a great political organism.

The Italians still held in 1866 the intellectual and social dominion of almost all the lands of the Adriatic, they had their municipalities and their schools, the life of their civilization. Little by little, with a forced penetration, the Austrian Government turned great Germanic Magyar and Slavic masses into the Italian cities; it put these cities under a régime of direct Government control; it gave to the Germans, to the Magyars and to the Slavs hope to conquer ethnically the Italian cities; it deprived in great part the Italians of the right to vote, and divided them into artificial electoral and administrative districts to break their unity and thus weaken their action; it closed their schools and opened German, Magyar and

Slavic schools; it forced them to renounce their own language and occasionally had them massacred.

All this was possible, above all, because Austria possessed the roads of invasion to Italy, and with this overwhelming military superiority she could face, nay, provoke, the Italian nation. All this was possible, above all, because the Trentino, wedged as a formidable mass in the plain of the Po, assured to Austria the possibility of replying to an Italian political action in defense of the Italian Irredentists with the march of her armies into the valleys which descend upon Brescia, upon Verona and upon Milan, and with an attack upon the defenseless Italian coast from Pola and Cattaro.

The condition of Italy was tragic; her Irredentist population, suffocated by the empire, was forced to yield under the pressure of the Germanic, Magyar and Slavic emigrations; her boundaries and her sea were under the strategical dominion of Austria; her policy held in this vise. It may be asked whether one can speak of a complete Italian independence in this condition; it may be asked whether one can call truly free a state which must stand by inactive at the destruction of its children.

In substance, Italy was in such a state; and the day in which she entered the war, facing a military situation absolutely unfavorable, she entered having a true war for liberty to conduct; her independence and her future in mind. It would have been an atrocious joke had the Italian people intervened in the war for world liberty, without obtaining the promise from its Allies that,

in the midst of the liberty of all, it should have had its own liberty. This has been its **sacred egoism**. It is not the egoism which tramples for its own sake, and for its own interests upon every right, but the just and sacred desire to obtain for itself what it should obtain for others, but the just and sacred right of drawing from victory what victory should give to every people.

### **The Treaty of London**

Italy entered into war upon the basis of the Treaty of London, not having bargained her intervention, but having put before the Allies this problem of justice—that if the word "liberty," in the name of which the war was being fought, should have a concrete meaning for every people, it should have a concrete meaning also for the Italian people; that if Europe was to be relieved by a colossal effort of will and of blood from the menace of Germanic dominion, Italy, which gave to this colossal effort all her resources, was to be relieved, more than from the menace, from the actual reality of this dominion, exercised by Germany through Austria. The Treaty of London means this, and this only: The liberty of the Italian nation. In the Treaty of London there is not one city nor one man beyond the boundaries of the strict defense of this liberty; there are Germanic and Slavic national nuclei which will remain within these boundaries, but they are the equivalent of the Italian cities and populations, which Italy has sacrificed to the friendship and to the future of the Slavic peoples.

There is also an immediate demonstration of this fact. The Allied and American Generals and Ministers determining at Versailles the conditions of the armistice with Austria, have selected as we have shown, the boundaries defined by the Treaty of London, as the boundaries of military occupation. This, besides implicit recognition of the rights of Italy, means that the Allies have recognized that these are the minimum indispensable boundaries for the military safety of the Italian front! Here we are no longer dealing with purely diplomatic acts; here we are dealing with concrete conditions in the face of the enemy who surrenders his arms.

A technical examination of the Treaty of London shows at once that the boundary line determined by it represents the cardinal point upon which coincide the divide and the line of expansion of Italian nationality. The Austrian Empire was on this side of the line. It held in its possession except for a very small tract in the northeast about sixty miles of boundary—the two slopes of the divide; it occupied the Plateau of the Carso; it held entirely the Dinaric Alps, that is, the geographical enclosure of the Alpine system or the ethnical enclosure of the Italian nationality in the Adriatic. The Treaty of London purely and simply carries the boundary of the Kingdom of Italy upon this line, where lies the boundary of the Italian nation, where are the primitive, essential, fundamental conditions for the defense of Italy.

When one discusses the Treaty of London he must discuss n

is formal diplomatic value but is national value, its value as the historical completion of Italian unity. If it is desired that Italy be truly a free country and that she have the liberty of her development to her must first of all be given the conditions of safety. At every stage of Italian history there has been the tragic phenomenon that a foreign state, by possessing the roads of invasion of Italy, has had the possibility of dominating the peninsula. For centuries Italy has been divided, torn, trampled upon in the contest of the great European states which were formed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. What Belgium and Serbia have suffered in the war from the German Armies, Piedmont and Lombardy have suffered thirty times from the Imperial Spanish and French Armies. The Italian Republics have been stifled by the enemy which pushed itself from the Alpine valleys into their plains.

In 1851 Lord Palmerston, on the basis of these historical experiences, in a note of protest against the Germanic confederation which had annexed to its territory the Trentino, stated the principle of the Italian geographical boundary as the necessary boundary for the Italian nation.

To-day the Treaty of London and the third clause of the armistice simply repeat the formula of Lord Palmerston as to the line of expansion and at the same time of defense of the Italian nation. This is absolutely indisputable for the Trentino and for the Upper Adige, where the geographical unity is precisely defined and the Italian nationality is absolutely prevalent (ac-

cording to the Austrian statistics, 420,000 Italians and 180,000 Germans); indisputable for Triest, for Pola, for Fiume, for Zara, ancient Italian cities in which the forced Germanic and Slavic immigration if it has left its mark in the painful traces of struggle and of martyrdom, has not succeeded in modifying the ethnic character; indisputable in a way for the Adriatic, where the original Italian population has been driven toward the sea, shut up in the cities and slowly suffocated by the advance of this immigration. It is on the Adriatic that the greatest political problems of the Italian peace are assembled and it is in substance the problem of the Adriatic which still represents in public opinion one of the fundamental problems of the future disposition of Europe.

### The Adriatic Problem

Geographically and historically the Adriatic is an Italian sea. The line of mountains which incloses the Trentino incloses also Dalmatia, the line of expansion of the Italian nation which follows the Brennero follows equally the Dinaric Alps. Dalmatia is Italy, as is Italy any part of the peninsula; only it is an Italy which has suffered extremely from foreign invasions, and from a policy of forced emigrations and of mixture of the races, which have deformed its character; it is an Italy in which there are to-day Slavic national nuclei so strong as to be able to face and sustain a struggle of a national character against the Italians.

The historical result of this struggle and of the directives of

the currents of Slavic expansion to-day is this: that on the Adriatic Sea the Italian people and the Jugo-Slavic people together gravitate; that on the Adriatic Sea to-day there exist two great interests of two peoples.

Until to-day, until the day in which victory has given to the Italian army the Irredentist cities of the eastern shore, the condition of Italy on the Adriatic has been, as on the entire land boundary, one of absolute inferiority.

Italy possessed all the western coast, Austria all the eastern coast. The western coast has only two military ports—Venice and Brindisi—with a distance between them of 450 miles. With Venice and Brindisi Italy could not, however, defend herself; she had no naval bases and no geographical possibility of building any. Coming to the other shore of the Adriatic, the Austrians were able to attack and bombard the Italian coasts, as they had done many times, and return to their bases before the Italian fleet, moving from Venice or from Brindisi, could come to their defense. The Italians were forced into a colossal work of watchfulness in the Adriatic, day and night, to maintain strong squadrons and to consume time and forces.

Austria, as we have said, completely dominated the Adriatic; the Upper Adriatic with Pola, the Middle Adriatic with Sebenico and with Spalato, the Lower Adriatic with Cattaro. The Italian Navy, in order to go into action against the Austrian fleets, was forced to throw itself into desperately dangerous expeditions; such as those of Com. Pel-

legrini and of Com. Rizzo, expeditions which, while they covered with glory the Italian sailors, were and have been at the same time a demonstration of the position of absolute geographical and military inferiority in which Italy found herself confronted with the state which possessed the Istrian and Dalmatian shores.

The Treaty of London founded upon the necessity of destroying this state of injustice for Italy, upon the necessity of giving to Italy the freedom of her sea. Not dominion, because the Treaty of London assures Italy a preponderance only in the Northern Adriatic between Venice and Zara, that is, in the zone where the population is more compactly Italian, while it assigns to Jugo-Slavia the coast from Spalato to Cattaro, that is, the control of the Lower Adriatic, and it leaves the Middle Adriatic in a balance of power and of defense.

As a solution of the military problem, the Treaty of London represents simply the safety of Italy on the Adriatic, the primitive condition of her free life. As a solution of the historical and national problem, it is perhaps more a sacrifice of Italy than a sacrifice of Jugo-Slavia.

All the cities of Dalmatia are Italian, all the life and the civilization of Dalmatia are Italian life and civilization; in Dalmatia there are Italian populations which for a century have defended themselves furiously from Germanic and Slavic pressure, the last soldiers of a great battle equally fought against the sieges policy of the Imperial Austrian Government which wishes to

stroy the Italian name in the Adriatic.

After a century of this struggle the Italians have been left in the minority in the Adriatic, but theirs is the minority of the victims of an oppression who should now be protected and defended. Italy cannot naturally accept that 400,000 of her sons, as many Italians as are to-day living on the Adriatic, be repaid for their marvelous resistance, by abandonment to the Slavs, to those same Slavs who have represented the ethnical instrument with which the Austrian Government has tried to suppress them.

Italy cannot renounce cities entirely Italian, such as Zara; she cannot betray the faith and the martyrdom of those Irredentists; she cannot, especially, tolerate that, coming out from a war for freedom fought with colossal sacrifices she would be still slave on her own sea.

### Italians and Jugo-Slavs

The problem of the Adriatic must be examined with the greatest spirit of justice. On the one side there are indisputable necessities of an emigrated Slavic population; on the other, the indisputable necessities for the defense of the Italian Nation and the rights of an indigenous Italian population which finds itself in its own territory in the face of the Slavs.

The Treaty of London recognizes perfectly this double state of necessity. As it lays down the essential conditions for the defense and the safety of Italy, so it gives the conditions of life, of safety and of defense for the

Jugo-Slavic people.

The Treaty of London is the only document supported by the Allies in which there are precise promises in favor of the Jugo-Slavic peoples, and these promises were asked for by Italy before the Allies. Italy, which might have egotistically treated only with regard to her own rights, has wished, in entering the war, to assure also to the Jugo-Slavs their rights for a just balance of power in the Adriatic.

Note 2 attached to Article 5 of the treaty establishes:

The following districts upon the Adriatic shall be by virtue of the Powers of the Entente included in the territory of Croatia, Servia and Montenegro: to the north of the Adriatic the entire coast, starting from the Gulf of Vosca, by the Italian boundary, as far as the northern frontier of Dalmatia, including the entire coast which to-day belongs to Hungary; the entire coast of Croatia, the port of Fiume and the little ports of Nevi and of Carlopolago, and thus the islands of Veglia, Pervicio, Gregorio, Kali and Arbe; to the south of the Adriatic, where Servia and Montenegro are interested, the entire coast from Punta Planka to the river Drin, with the important ports of Spalato, Ragusa, Cattaro, Antivari, Dulcigno and San Giovanni di Medua, as also the islands of Grande and Piccola Zirona, Buja, Solta, Brazza, Cikljan and Calamotta.

This stipulation, as it gives proof of the generous loyalty of the Italian people, so it gives the first measure of what should be and is a just accord of all rights; of the rights of a people, such as the Serbo-Croatians, which has the right to its future, and of the rights of a people, such as the Italians, which cannot renounce itself.

## **Heroes of the Redeemed Lands**

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### **Cesare Battisti**

Cesare Battisti was born in Trentino in 1875, where his education began. Like all Italians of Trentino, Istria, Dalmatia, who wanted a superior education, he finished his studies in Italy at the University of Turin and Parma. He returned to unredeemed Trentino a broad-minded Socialist, and when he entered the political field was elected member of the Diet at Innsbruck. His ideas on Socialism did not interfere at all with the idea of nationalism, which means that his Socialistic ideas did not have the seal of the German internationalists.

When war broke out he fled to Italy and was a warm propagandist of war against Austria among those Italian Socialistic elements which were following German Socialistic leaders and thought. Cesare Battisti was instrumental in opening the eyes of many Italians to the subtle work of moral disruption that had been very successfully undertaken by the Germans, Socialists or otherwise.

When the Italian Army was launched against the Austrians entrenched on the peaks of the Alpine barrier, he was with it as Lieutenant in the Alpine Corps and fought valiantly. Unhappily, in one of the individual fights so common in mountain warfare, he was lost sight of and, having been wounded, was found later on by hostile patrols. Someone recognized him; he had been a conspicuous figure in local and State politics before his flight to Italy. No sooner did the military authorities know that Cesare Battisti was a prisoner and powerless in their hands, than Austrian brutality asserted itself. He was

sent immediately to Trento, although badly wounded, and after a mockery of martial trial was sentenced to death and hanged. He was denied the honor even of a bullet—as a soldier's due. Austria always knew how to be mean; but Austria is dead forever.

Cesare Battisti, instead, will be a living spirit forever, dear to the memory of Italy as a national hero, revered as a martyr to the cause of liberty by all nations.

### **Nazario Sauro**

Nazario Sauro, an Italian from Istria, therefore under the Austrian yoke, was another "irredento" who paid with his life for the ardent love of his mother country, Italy. He was a born sailor, familiar with all the nooks and corners of the eastern coast of the Adriatic. At the outset of the war between Italy and Austria he, too, fled to help his real country and put at its disposal his maritime knowledge. He made sixty-three raids on various Austrian naval bases and was absolutely fearless. A spy denounced him to the authorities. While in disguise he was strolling on the wharf of Grado. Arrested, he denied his identity stoutly. Lacking a substantial witness to identify him, the military judges dragged his old mother into court and submitted her to the third degree during a whole week, until the poor old woman, out of sheer exhaustion and prostration, gave way under the strain and identified in the prisoner her son. During the execution—he was of course hanged—the poor mother was compelled to stay under the gallows, witnessing the hanging.

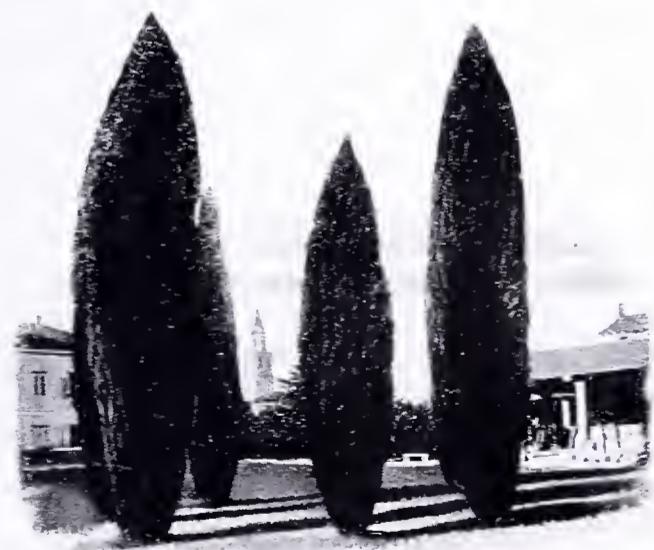
The moral he left to his sons was "to keep sacred and warm in their hearts the love of the land to which he had fully dedicated himself." A great Italian poet, also an "unredeemed" from Dalmatia, had sung it to them long ago—"a egregie cose il forte animo accendono urne dei forti"—that is, "The grave of heroes fires the hearts of the brave."

#### Francesco Rismundo

The New York Herald not long ago, giving vent to indignation at Austrian brutalities, was wondering why some occult power could be so energetically, though occultly at work shielding that vile monarchy and by a crafty, insidious propaganda could spread the utterly false notion that Austria was waging a decent, honorable war. The usual monarchy founded on a treacherous, soulless bureaucracy is now

dead. What it was capable of only the Serbians and Italians that were confronting that power of darkness could tell. Francesco Rismundo from Spalato, Dalmatia, could tell. The soul of this Italian hero was clamoring for vengeance from the great beyond. The armies of the allied democracies that swept the tyrants into nothingness have appeased him.

Spalato in Dalmatia saw him developing into a hardy youth. The first months of war between Italy and Austria saw him fighting like a lion in the Bersaglieri Corps on the bare craigs of the Dolomitic Alps. Badly wounded in a fierce encounter, he refused to give up, but physical weakness having got the better of his undaunted spirit, he was made a prisoner and burned alive in the main square of Gorizia by the Austrian soldiery on Oct. 26, 1915.



AQUILEIA

The Campanile is seen in the background and, to the left, part of the museum.

## **Italy and Imperialism**

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Discussions on the imperialistic aspirations of Italy have been frequent and heated in the past. Italy has been accused by English and French writers of harboring imperialistic feelings. Certain articles appearing in the "New Europe" and in the "Correspondent" when brought to the attention of the Italian people astonished them and brought home to them the necessity of explaining to the world at large Italy's real policy, position and aims in the war.

In Italy there does exist a small imperialistic element which is an inevitable outcome of a thirty years' alliance with Germany, during which time the theories of German imperialism, against which Italy later fought, were disseminated. This imperialistic group in Italy, though loud and noisy in its manifestations, is small and inconsequential in numbers. The evil in connection with it, is that the government permitted this party to voice its views unchallenged, abroad, whereas the government itself did not at once come forth and establish definitely the real thoughts of Italy on Imperialism. The reluctance of the government to express its views, was due in part to the belief that one of the effective ways of combating unreasonable Jugo-Slav imperialism was by unreasonable Italian imperialism. In opposition to the demands of the small imperialistic Jugo-Slav faction which demanded Trieste, Gorizia and Udine, the small group of

Italian imperialists demanded all Dalmatia, Albania and the Corfu Canal. The government believed that extremist propaganda in Italy would frighten the Jugo-Slavs and would lessen their pretensions. It was not understood by the political leaders in Italy that such a policy gave the Jugo-Slavs, well-organized in the United States, England, France, Russia and Switzerland, grounds for accusing Italy of harboring extreme imperialistic aims.

These imperialistic manifestations at home and especially abroad, by a minority, resulted in the creation of a feeling of suspicion about Italian politics. The necessity for clarifying Italy's war aims, which in reality had nothing in common with the imperialistic exaggerations presented abroad as genuinely Italian, was then realized.

On the nineteenth of July, 1917, almost on the eve of the departure of Baron Sonnino, Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, for London and Paris, the "Giornale d'Italia," known as an organ of that Ministry, published an article "In Regard to Imperialism," which shed much light on the real program of Italian aspirations.

In discussing the Adriatic question, the article gave a blow both to the extremist Jugo-Slavs and the extremist Italians, and recognized and supported the genuine Jugo-Slav movement for independence. The article hinted at the fact that the Adriatic question had really been regu-

lated by the Pact of London, and it advanced a policy which compromised between the Italian and the Jugo-Slav extremes.

The question of Ionia and possession of colonies was also discussed in the article. Italy cannot be called imperialistic for desiring to suppress Greece in Ionia only in so far as the integrity and independence of Albania requires it, and in accordance with the pact of London and of Florence. Nor can she be accused of having excessive colonial desires if the government limits itself to seeing that its own right is not neglected in case the nations allied with her decide to aggrandize their extra-European empires. "Italy," says the article, "feels second to no power in democratic sentiments, but if the democracies of England and France should wish to, and ultimately should be able to enlarge their colonial empires, we do not know why we alone should remain empty-handed."

The article, appearing on the eve of the departure of Mr. Sonnino, was all the more important, because it was known that the object of his trip was the defining of many questions existing between Italy and the Allies. The spirit of moderation and conciliation dominant throughout the article expressed the feeling of the majority in Italy. This article was followed by a series of articles, in the same vein, on the Adriatic question in the widest read and the most authoritative newspaper in Italy, the "Corriere della Sera." The articles stressed the advisability of an understanding between Italians and the Slavs of the south and urged the recogni-

tion of the seriousness and importance of the Jugo-Slav movement.

These facts have a real value for those who wish to examine and judge for themselves in good faith. They prove that the so-called Italian imperialism is the movement of a minority, scanty, but noisy and active, and not a prevailing current in Italian public opinion, supported and fostered by the government.

After these explicit declarations, after the attitude adopted by the majority in Italy towards this all-important question of the Adriatic, to talk of Italian imperialism as a predominating and directing force in Italian politics would be erroneous and nonsensical. Imperialistic tendencies exist in Italy, as in France, in England, the United States, and among the Slavs of the south. But these tendencies do not rule Italian politics; Italian actions are not shaped by them. Italy's aims in the war are known to the Allies; they are not imperialistic aims, but aims which harmonize perfectly with the democratic kind of war waged by the Allies.

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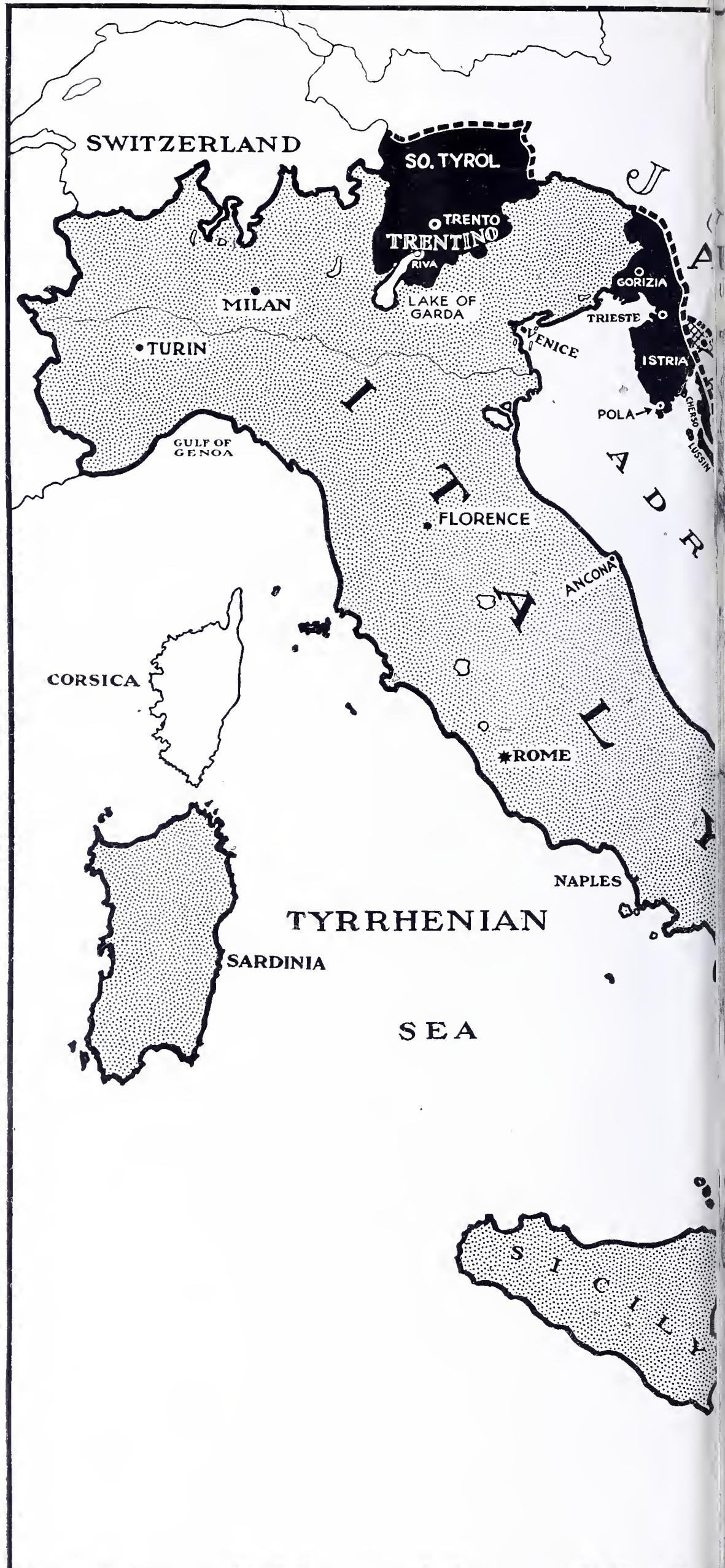
## Fiume Sends Delegate to Rome

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The city of Fiume, one of the cities redeemed by the Italians from the Austrians, has sent a delegate representing the city to the Italian Parliament at Rome. The delegate, Dr. Gino Antoni, was chosen by the National Council of Fiume, and at Rome he will present the rights under which Fiume claims admission to the union of Italy.

# ITALY AND THE

Territory which is to be restored to Italy in accordance with the Treaty of London of April, 1915 is indicated by the solid black sections.



# DEEMED LANDS



The districts of Fiume and Valona, occupied by the Italians are indicated by squares.

## **Half a Century of Italy's Foreign Policy 1866-1915**

### **Rome**

The year 1861 had seen the creation of the Kingdom of Italy, with Victor Emmanuel II as the liberal and constitutional king of the new state, to which Venetia was added in 1866. The capital of the Kingdom of Sardinia, Turin, remained the capital of the Kingdom of Italy until 1865, when Florence was made the new capital. But all the Italians felt that the natural capital of Italy was Rome. The Eternal City represented a symbol of union for the newly formed nation; it brought back the memory of ancient greatness. Besides, the possession of Rome by the Italians solved the question of the double authority of the Pope, spiritual and temporal, which had troubled Italy for many centuries.

### **The Objection of France**

Napoleon III, Emperor of the French, and the powerful clerical camarilla that dominated French politics opposed an Italian occupation of Rome. A French expeditionary force, under the command of General Lamoricière had defeated an attempt of a small body of volunteers, led by Garibaldi, to advance on Rome.

The matter of the French intervention in Rome was brought to the French legislative body by the small group of liberals that tried to help the young Italian nation to complete its unity. In an historic meeting of the French Chamber of Deputies on December fifth, 1867, the Minister of

State Eugène Rouher, so answered to the interpellation of a liberal member: "Now I come to the dilemma: the Pope needs Rome and Italy cannot do without it. We declare that Italy shall not take possession of Rome. France will never tolerate such a violence made to her honor and to Catholicism."

### **Political Conditions in Europe in 1867**

To understand the force of such a statement and the bitter disappointment of the Italians, one must consider the political conditions of Europe and especially the relations between Italy and France at that time. The alliance of the Kingdom of Sardinia with France in 1859 had brought to Italy the region of Lombardy, while France had been rewarded with the two provinces of Nice and Savoy. A series of uprisings and pacific revolutions had added to the new kingdom Tuscany, the Duchies of Parma and Modena, the Papal Provinces of Romagna, Marche and Umbria. The adventurous enterprise of Garibaldi with his thousand volunteers had put under Victor Emmanuel's rule twelve millions of Italians who inhabited the Kingdom of the two Sicilies, theretofore governed by the unspeakable Bourbons.

But Rome remained detached, under the government of the Pope. The chief of the Catholics would not abandon his temporal power. The Church of Rome did not understand that its greatness would be enhanced, not dimin-

shed by renouncing the political government of the city and of the surrounding country and by limiting itself to the religious guidance of the Catholics of the world.

France, however, or rather those who governed France then, forbade the realization of Italy's aspirations to complete unity. And the second empire was then at the height of its power: Napoleon the Third could indeed claim then he was the arbiter of the destinies of Europe.

### The Italians Occupy Rome

On the second of September, 1870, the French Army at Sedan surrendered to the Prussian king, who personally received the word of Napoleon the Third. Forty-eight hours later the populace of Paris arose and the edifice of the Second Empire fell to give place to a Republic.

Then it was that the Italian government thought the moment had come when it could realize the dreams of centuries and reunite all of Italy with Rome as capital. But it was not without reluctance that Victor Emmanuel decided to give orders to send an army of occupation to Rome. The story of his interview with his prime minister, Quintino Sella, is related in a book of memoires by the latter's secretary, Marquis Guiccioli and deserves to be repeated.

Sella, a man of rugged and honest nature, inherited from generations of Piedmontese merchants and manufacturers, bluntly told the king that the moment had arrived to take Rome. To this Victor Emmanuel replied that he was a soldier and a gen-

tleman and that he could not reason like a draper. The soldier King's desire was then to go to the help of his former ally the Emperor of the French. To this Sella replied that he was, indeed, a draper, but that in his family there had been a scrupulous care to pay debts, and to keep the given word; the King had promised the Italians to complete the unity of Italy, he must now keep his promise.

That perfect constitutional monarch, Victor Emmanuel II, understood and put no further opposition to the unanimous desire of his subjects. An army of occupation was sent to Rome and, after a skirmish of little military importance, entered the city. The Pontiff retired to the Vatican. A plebiscite of the people of Rome was taken, resulting overwhelmingly in favor of a union with the Kingdom of Italy, and Victor Emmanuel II, on entering the city on July 2, 1871, pronounced the historic words: "We are in Rome and here we shall remain."

### Antagonism to France and Bismarck Machinations

In the decade that followed the war of 1870-71 the feeling was not of the best in the relations between France and Italy. The Italians could not forget that for many years the realizations of their dream of unity had been prevented by France. The memory of Mentana where French troops had defeated Garibaldi's attempt to deliver Rome, the unsuccessful endeavor to convince the governing powers in France not to oppose the occupation of Rome, the fact that the first President of the French Republic,

M. Thiers, had been one of the most emphatic opposers of this occupation, all contributed to counteract the sympathies for France. That these sympathies were originally strong is attested by the fact that in 1871 Garibaldi himself, oblivious of Mentana, had gone to France with a body of volunteers to help her in her last desperate efforts against the German invaders at Dijon, he succeeded in capturing a German flag, the only one taken during the war.

The designs of Bismarck to reduce France to impotence had been frustrated by the wonderful vitality of the French nation that had paid with apparent ease the enormous indemnity of five billion francs, and had shown the world, at the Paris Exposition of 1878, that her wounds were fully healed, that she was herself again, stronger and wealthier than she had ever been before. On the other side the reasons of animosity between France and Italy were tending naturally to disappear, and the master mind of the German empire saw both the danger of French revival and of a stricter union, perhaps of an alliance between the two Latin nations.

Then it was that France was encouraged to embark in colonial wars that were to conquer for her a great empire beyond the seas. Her newly found strength and ambition could then find a goal without thinking of "revanche." And at the same time, by one episode of this colonial aggrandizement of France, the conquest of the Regency of Tunis, Italy was offended in her pride and hurt in her interests. The gulf between France and Italy

that was beginning to disappear opened, through German machinations, wider and deeper.

The Regency of Tunis, on the north coast of Africa was considered by Italy as a natural appendage of the peninsular Kingdom. Situated at only a few hours from Sicily, having its few modern institutions into the hands of Italians, with only Italian schools for the use of the European residents there, who were nearly all Italians and who all used the Italian language, it might indeed justify the view of those who thought that Tunis was to become an Italian colony.

So it was that the French occupation of Tunis in 1881 and the protectorate established by France over the whole regency by the treaty signed by the Bey at the Bardo on May 12th roused anger in Italy. The feeling of antagonism towards France was revived. It was impossible to think of an alliance with a country that was administering to Italy's *amour propre* and to Italy's interest such a blow as the occupation of Tunisia had been. So Italy sought elsewhere her political associates and became a part to another group of nations.

## The Triple Alliance

At the Congress of Berlin in 1878 Italy had had occasion to note the disadvantage resulting from her isolation. The Italian diplomats representing the peninsular Kingdom at the Congress returned home with empty hands. What was believed to be a settlement of the thorny problem of the Balkans conceded nothing to Italy. Her boundaries remained the same as had been

established in 1866, her Adriatic coast remained unprotected, while the passes of the Rhaetian Alps remained open for a possible invasion. The situation was precarious for the newly formed kingdom, much inferior in population and resources to the Empire of Austria-Hungary.

Thus it was that the bitterness of Tunis following the disappointment of the Congress of Berlin, the sense of insecurity, and the adherents that German intrigue was gaining in Italy for the Teutonic cause, resulted in the Treaty of the Triple Alliance, uniting in a defensive union the two Empires of Germany and Austria-Hungary and the Kingdom of Italy.

In October, 1881, King Humbert of Italy went to Vienna with the ministers Depretis and Mancini, among the painful silence of the nation, astonished and hurt. Bismarck could well be proud of his work: he had succeeded in bringing the son of Italy's great king in bitter political pilgrimage, to shake hands with Francis Joseph. It was only thirty-four years after that the third King of Italy cut with the word the ties that insecurely bound the two nations.

#### The Treaty of the Triple Alliance

The treaty of the Triple Alliance was stipulated on May 20, 1882. The absolute silence maintained for many years over its clauses—a silence required especially by Germany and one which authorized interpretations not corresponding to reality—contributed to strengthen the fear and diffidence that existed between France and Italy. That

was exactly according to the wish of Bismarck.

The treaty was renewed for the first time in 1887. It was successively renewed in 1891, in 1902, and for the last time in 1912.

#### Relations with England and France

If misunderstandings had arisen more than once between France and Italy in the last half-century, nothing had seemingly troubled the relations between Italy and Great Britain, which had always been cordial. In the year 1887, at the time of the first renewal of the treaty of the Triple Alliance, Lord Salisbury, speaking at the annual banquet for the inauguration of the Lord Mayor of London, declared that the traditional friendship between Italy and Great Britain ought to assume a more concrete form, and the then prime minister added that "England ought to prevent that the *statu quo* of the Mediterranean should be troubled to the disadvantage of Italy."

And it is well here to recall the fact that, if the relations between Italy and France were at times far from cordial, those between Great Britain and France assumed often in the last thirty years a character of even more acute opposition, witness the Fashoda incident in 1898 and the open moral support given to the cause of the Boers in France during the South African war in 1900-1903.

But with the advent to the throne of Edward VII relations began to improve between France and Great Britain and between France and Italy. While the *entente cordiale* was being

prepared, Edward VII went to visit the King of Italy in Rome, in the spring of 1903, and during the fall of the same year Victor Emmanuel III not only visited the British sovereign in London, but paid also an official visit in Paris to M. Loubet, President of the French Republic, and was received with a very cordial welcome. The visit was returned in April, 1904, at Rome, and the great demonstration that the Italian people gave to the First Magistrate of France, was only marred by a protest of the Pope, who since 1870 objected to the presence of foreign Catholic rulers in Rome; this action led to the final rupture between France and the Vatican.

### **Italia Irredenta**

The short war of 1866 against Austria had added Venetia to the New Kingdom of Italy, but there were other lands as surely and indisputably Italian as Venetia that had remained under Austrian yoke. Then it was that the Italian patriotic and political party, known under the name of Irredentismo was formed and gained adherents until all Italians were in favor of it, although not a few deprecated the extreme and irreconcilable attitude of the more outspoken "irredentisti." This name was formed from the words "Italia Irredenta"—Unredeemed Italy—and the party had for its avowed object the emancipation of all Italian lands still subject to foreign rule. The fact must be noted, however, that no agitation ever took place for those Italian lands that belonged to France like the island of Corsica or the province of Nice, or for the island of Malta,

subject to Great Britain. Both Corsica and Malta have always seemed well content to remain with France and Great Britain, and as for the Province of Nice, it had been annexed to France after a regular plebiscite in 1859.

It was solely for the lands that were under Austrian rule that the Irredentists conducted their agitation, which at times menaced to hasten the breaking of the treaty of the Triple Alliance. At times the agitation was interrupted for a few years, then it revived after some new proof of Austria's tyrannical and barbarous system of government. It may safely be said—as we have noted above—that all Italians have been irredentisti at heart, but political prudence advised some to conceal their feelings, until all reserve could be abandoned after August, 1914.

The "Irredentisti" formed no special political party or group of the Italian Parliament. As a rule its most open advocates were to be found among the ranks of the Republican and Socialists and, generally, among the members of the opposition.

### **Colonial Policy**

The last twenty-five years of the nineteenth century were characterized in all Europe by a general current towards a colonial policy. Italy was not exempt from the fever of colonial possessions, and starting with the occupation of the city of Massawa in 1885, she sought to create a colonial empire on the coast of the Red Sea, establishing also a protectorate over the Christian Empire of Abyssinia. In this Italy was not successful.

and in 1896, after an unfortunate military campaign against Abyssinia, the Italian Government decided not to persist in a colonial adventure that was costly and dangerous, and renounced the protectorate over Abyssinia. Two African colonies remained to her however, the Erythraea on the Red Sea and Somaliland on the Indian Ocean, both rich and fruitful countries that may in the future yield a great return for the millions expended in them.

But Erythraea and the Somalia did not seem to satisfy the desire and, in part, the need for new colonies. The balance of power in the Mediterranean required a point on the Northern coast of Africa for Italy, Egypt was a British protectorate and Algeria a French colony. The conference of Algeciras had divided Morocco between France and Spain. There remained only Tripoli, a vast vilayet of the Sublime Porte, the most ill-governed and backward part of North Africa. There had been several attempts to develop Italian commercial and industrial enterprises in the rich lands of Libya, that comprised the two divisions of Tripoli and Cirenaica, but the Ottoman Government has always frustrated such attempts and, moreover, the safety of the Italian colony at Tripoli had been endangered by the overbearing and menacing attitude of the Turkish master of those unhappy regions. A strong movement of public opinion forced the hand of the Government and on September 28, 1911, the Italian Ambassador at Constantinople delivered an ultimatum to the Sublime Porte, informing the Ottoman Government that Italy

saw herself compelled to occupy militarily the vilayet of Tripoli for the protection of her interests and of her dignity.

The Ottoman Government refused to accept this ultimatum, and Italy found herself in a state of war with Turkey. The war continued for over a year, ending with the complete victory of Italy and the ratification of the treaty of Lauzanne on November 26, 1912, that transferred to Italy all the rights of Turkey on Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.

### The Great War and Italy's Neutrality

When at the end of June, 1914, the Austrian aggression against Serbia resulted in a declaration of war and an invasion of the little Balkan kingdom, Italy found herself suddenly confronted by an extraordinarily serious situation.

Be it said to the great glory of Italy and of her statesmen: there was no hesitation in perceiving the odious character of the aggression, there was not for a single minute and in a single mind the desire to become associated with the aggression and divide the spoils of a victorious war with the other members of the Triple Alliance.

Article III of the Treaty of Alliance said textually:

"If one or two of the contracting Powers, without a provocation on their part, are attacked by two or more Powers and engage in war with these, the 'casus foederis' arises for all the contracting parties."

This clearly said that help was to be given only in case of a defensive war. In spite of the declaration of Germany that she

was attacked by Russia and France, Italy saw at once, on the basis also of an attempted aggression on the Serb nation one year before, that Germany and Austria were the aggressors, and, on the very first day of the war the Italian Ambassador in Paris was instructed to communicate to the Government of the French Republic that the latter could be assured of the absolute neutrality of Italy.

Italy's verdict, therefore, threw the guilt of war on Germany and on Austria.

#### **The End of the Triple Alliance Austria's Responsibility**

It is important here, although it will involve us in a somewhat lengthy explanation of facts, to explain how the treaty of the Triple Alliance came to an end as far as Italy was concerned, and how it was that the responsibility for the breaking of the treaty must be laid upon Austria and not upon Italy. It was Austria and not Italy that violated the treaty and betrayed both the letter and the spirit of it.

Article VII of the treaty of the Triple Alliance is as follows:

"Austria-Hungary and Italy, aiming at the conservation of the status quo in the Orient pledge themselves to exercise their influence so that any change of territory, harmful to either one of the contracting parties be avoided. They will give each other all explanations that can make clear their respective intentions, as well as those of other powers. Should the case arise, in the course of events, that the maintenance of the status quo in the Balkan territory, on the coast and on the Ottoman is-

lands on the Adriatic and on the Aegean Sea were recognized to be impossible and that—either as a consequence of the procedure of a third Power or for any other cause—Austria or Italy were compelled to change the status quo with a temporary or permanent occupation, this occupation may come to pass only after preceding agreement between the two Powers on the basis of the principle of reciprocal compensation for all the advantages, territorial or of other sort, that one of them could achieve besides the present status quo and in such a way as to satisfy the justified claims of either part."

It is to be noted that, at the time of the Italian-Turkish war of 1911-1912, Italy had carefully refrained from attacking Turkey on her European shore and had limited the war to the Lybian territory. Thus had Italy respected both the letter and the spirit of her treaty obligations.

By sending the historical ultimatum to Serbia and by consequently attacking the Balkan Kingdom without previous consultation with Italy, Austria had wilfully broken the first part of the agreement, viz.: that part that obliged each of the contracting parties "to exercise their influence for the conservation of the status quo in the Balkans." Austria furthermore initiated the violation of the Serbian territory without the "preceding agreement between the two Powers" that was one of the most important clauses of Article VII of the treaty.

To a protest sent to Vienna by Baron Sonnino, Italian Minister of Foreign affairs, Count Berchtold, the Austrian Minister, re-

plied that the war waged by the Austro-Hungarian Empire was "nothing but a defensive war having as its aim the maintenance of the status quo in the Balkans."

The complete text of the letter containing this extraordinary assertion can be found in the Green Book published by the Italian Government shortly after the breaking of relations with the Central Empire.

#### Von Bülow at Rome

The position in which the Central Powers took in their relations with Italy put so clearly the wrong on their side and was so full of menacing possibilities for the future that it was decided to send to Italy Prince von Bülow, the suave and clever diplomat whose mission was to conciliate the Italian Government and to eliminate every dissension between Italy and Austria-Hungary.

Prince von Bülow arrived in Rome in December, 1914, and he immediately set to work to try to arrange matters so as to convince Italy to maintain her neutrality. It was no longer the question to have Italy associated with the Central Powers in the war against the Entente; even such a diplomat as Prince von Bülow was, had to recognize that this was an impossible task.

Germany was empowered by Austria to offer "compensations" of some sort to Italy under the form of cession of territory in the Trentino.

But the men at the Government in Italy were not to be bribed or cowed. Baron Sonnino in a communication to Prince von Bülow declares explicitly that Italy could not give up a single point

of the program that represented her national aspirations. Furthermore—said the same communication—the Italian government would see in a continuance of all military actions in the Balkans the proof that Austria-Hungary had decided to resume her freedom of action, a fact which would justify the Italian Government to assert its own freedom of action."

A short time after this explicit declaration of the Italian Government, an Austrian torpedo-boat bombarded the port of Antivari and Austrian aeroplanes threw bombs over Cettigne and Pogdoritza. Austria, after being warned, violated once more the treaty of the Triple Alliance that in no uncertain terms prescribed the line of action to be held in the Balkans.

#### Declaration of War

The first month of 1915 passed in Italy in a turmoil of excitement. The public, while not exactly informed of every step in the negotiations, approved of the firm conduct of Italy's governing men. Meanwhile the nature of Germany's aggression in Belgium and Austria's aggression in Serbia appeared more and more odious and repellent. Public opinion, always strong with a free people, was entirely against any accord with the Central Powers. Austria, through the intercession of von Bülow, continued to make offers of "compensations" that were far, however, from answering the desire of Italy to complete her national unity. But all was useless: the impetuous popular movement was forcing the hand of the Italian Government, not unwilling itself to enter the war.

So it was that, all other means be-



V. E. ORLANDO  
Italian Prime Minister

BARON SYDNEY SONNINO  
Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs

ing considered useless and undesirable, Italy took the final step in the matter. On the 20th of May, 1915, the Italian Chamber of Deputies and the Senate amid tremendous enthusiasm, by a vote of 407 to 74 for the former and of 262 to 2 for the latter, approved the bill conferring upon the Government full power to make war.

On the 23rd of May, the Italian Ambassador at Vienna communicated to the Imperial Government of Austria-Hungary "that Italy proclaimed annulled and henceforth without effect her treaty of alliance with Austria-Hungary." The momentous document terminated declaring that "His

Majesty the King of Italy considered himself in a state of war with Austria-Hungary."

The time for diplomatic action had passed. Italy entrusted her fate to the army that was to achieve after three and a half years of a most bitter war in the most difficult terrain of Europe the decisive victory that completely crushed the Empire of Austria-Hungary. The fatidic words of "Trento and Trieste" were no longer an aspiration; Italy had truly and finally completed her national unity; "Italia Irredenta" had become "Italia Redenta."

## Trieste Greets Italian General With Wild Enthusiasm

All of Trieste, more than 100,000 persons, stood at the wharfs, crowded the docks and piers, and almost smothered in the profusion of Italian flags, waved and cheered the first Italian warship which entered the harbor on Nov. 3, and brought to Trieste the first Italian governor it has had in many years. The details of the Italian occupation of Trieste are now available, and reports are full of tales of celebrations, patriotic outbursts, and the unbounded enthusiasm of the population.

The Italian warship "L'Audace" entered the harbor of Trieste at four in the morning, and in the gray lim light of dawn, the liberated hills in the distance were barely visible. As the ship reached shore a great shout arose from the crowds thronging the water front. Actual possession of Trieste was taken by General Petitti di Roreto, at 4:20 A. M., when as soon as he stood on Triestian ground, he said, "In the name of his Majesty the King of Italy, I take possession of the city of Trieste." Under a shower of flowers, flags and kisses, the General and his party walked to the city hall. When in the municipal building, the clamoring of the crowd outside was so insistent that the General had to show himself at one of the balconies, and from there send his greeting to the redeemed people of Trieste. General

Petitti is tall, of soldierly build; he carries his right arm in a sling for it was splintered in the Italian defensive of last July. As the General raises his left hand, the crowd murmurs, and then silently listens as he speaks.

"Citizens of Trieste! I thank you for the enthusiastic reception you gave me and my soldiers. I bring to you the greeting of Italy. I bring you the greeting of the army which generously sacrificed its blood that the dreams of a century might be realized. My task among you will be very simple. I invite you to shout with me, 'Three cheers for Italy, Three cheers for our King, Three cheers for the Italian Army!' For six years I have been in war, and in war I have suffered and bled; but never have I felt any emotions similar to those which I am now experiencing; it is the greatest in all my life. But God is right. He gives the deserved rewards to the causes which are just right."

When the tumultuous applause which greeted his salutation subsided, General Petitti was welcomed to the city by delegates appointed by the citizens of Trieste. All day and all night the citizens kept up an incessant cry of jubilation, expressing the unbounded joy within them that at last Trieste had been restored to Italy.

## Dalmatia According to Baedeker's

The accuracy of Baedeker's Guide Books has seldom been questioned and, besides, no one could accuse the German house of Karl Baedeker of partiality to the Italian party of "Irredentisti." The following quotations from the chapter on "Dalmatia" in the book of Austria-Hungary may, therefore, be of interest as showing the Italian character of the Dalmatian region.

or restaurants have Italian names. This is not only so in Zara or Sebenico, but as far south as Ragusa and Cattaro. The little maps of the various Dalmatian cities that illustrate the description given by Baedeker are all in Italian. Zara, Spalato, Ragusa, Cattaro show in the names of the streets, canals, harbors the Italian character of the region. "Zara," says Baedeker's, "is a town of



Belvedere—Pine Grove of St. Mark

Under the caption of "Language," Baedeker's says: "Italian will carry the traveller along the whole coast, as Italian is chiefly spoken there." This assertion is proved by the fact that all names of streets in Dalmatian towns—as described by Baedeker's—are in Italian. All hotels

thoroughly Italian character."

The map of Fiume and the indications about this town are also all in Italian: Italian names of streets and other localities, Italian hotels and restaurants, all testify to the linguistic habits and character of the population.

## “The Lion with the Closed Book”

### A Tale of Dalmatia by the Italian Consul General at New York

The eastern coast of the Adriatic is very much on the map nowadays, and books on history, travel and folklore regarding Dalmatia have indeed a timely interest.

In his book, “The Lion with the Closed Book,” Romolo Trittonj, Italian Consul-General at New York, has given us glimpses, pleasant glimpses, of what is probably the most picturesque part of Dalmatia, that section of sea and shore that includes Spalato, the proud native city of a Roman emperor, and the quaint old town of Traù.

The tale, that has an intensely interesting local color, images the traditional origin of a feud between the inhabitants of Spalato and those of Traù—one of those feuds once so common in every city, burg, hamlet of Italy, and so fruitful not only of banter, but of disturbances and strife in more remote times.

In this particular case it appears that in the middle of last century, on a morning, the Spalatians, affected by a wild rumor of a Turkish raid nearby, aroused to a sense of fear, entrusted the life and honor of their wives and daughters to the hospitality and honor of their neighbors from Traù, so well defended with strong, thick walls, so well sheltered in the embrace of a deep

sea; graceful Traù rises in fact from an islet close to the mainland.

The dreaded invasion proved to be a hoax, panic oozed out and a crop of banterings and ironical allusions popped up and spread around among the Traureses and the neighboring towns at the expense of the Spalatian husbands. A barber from this city, the main target of the satirical arrows, chewing the end of revenge, decided to rob Traù of what that city prized the most, the relic and emblem of the former republic of Venice, “The Lion with the Closed Book.”

We must keep in mind that in all the city towns, villages, even hamlets of Dalmatia, we find the Lion of Saint Mark either sculptured or painted in various guises and poses: rampant lions, crouching lions, lions with a scroll under the paws or an open book or a flag or an unsheathed sword with many repetitions of the same artistic conceptions; but no community, except the citizens of Traù, could boast of a lion with a closed book under his resting forepaws. The theft, soon discovered, excited the Traureses, egged farther on by the local chronicler and poet in their ardor of recovery; they gave chase and overtook the barber, strenuously rowing to safety.

midway between Spalato and Traù. Unable to carry away the stone sculpture of the lion, the barber threw it overboard. The feud between the two cities started then and there, and still goes merrily on.

First of all, we must congratulate the author and thank him for his having added a valuable book to the literature of the Italian popular lore, daintily avoiding excursions in the unsavory field of salacity in which some parts of the subject were apt to invite a less schooled author looking for zest. Of this literary commodity Comm. Tritonj finds a plentiful supply in the liveliness that forms one of the charms of the Italian life and not peculiar attraction of its own in the Venetian countries.

The Dalmatian landscapes, greatly admired by the few tourists stranding in those secluded corners of the Adriatic, are vividly brought to light by the pen of the author. The peculiarities and idiosyncrasies of the natives, drawn with sober picturesqueness and a sound, healthy realism, betrays a cultured mind abiding to classic standards: elegant simplicity of diction and sobriety of style vouch for it.

The reader may ask if this is a propaganda book. Hardly so: nowhere throughout this literary piece of work do we find the least sign of the strain that always accompanies the apologetical elucubrations of a political propagandist. And yet it will do more to bring about the conviction that Dalmatia is essentially Italian, not only in the

natural make-up and scenerie in civilization, language, art, but in the very breed that forms the underlying human structure, than any perfervid propaganda might achieve through literary efforts.

The feeling of devotion to Venice and the cult of her memory dormant in the popular consciousness only needs the incident of the theft and the pathetic oratorical effusion of the local intellectual guide to be aroused.

The light vein employed by the author, that runs like an underground current throughout the narrative, is just light enough to let us perceive how deeply rooted was and is the sense of devotion to Venice in Dalmatia, how strong was and is the longing of these Italians for the restoration of the Lion of Saint Mark. Since the publication of this book by Comm. Tritonj (1908, Naples, by Ricciardi) that lion has roared twice in anger on the Piave and twice has mauled the fox at hearing distance of Spalato and Traù. He will roar again, no doubt, malevolence and greed intend to disturb him in his lair. Though generous and tolerant with the divers creatures of the wild, creeping down to water from the thickets of the mountain fastness and yonder, he wants his share, the lion share, in his own watering pond.

It is to be regretted that the official duties of the author, no doubt weightier in these unsettled times, do not allow him a larger margin of leisure to deport himself in the field of letters and art there to gather with ease more laurels.

## An English Version of Benelli's "Cena Delle Beffe"

The "Supper of Practical Jokes" is the title given by Ada Ferling to her English version of Sem Benelli's "Cena delle Beffe," a dramatic poem in four acts which was given with great success in Italy for several seasons and was produced in Paris in a French version by an Richepin.

Sem Benelli has indeed found a splendid interpreter in Miss Ferling for his robust Italian verse. The "Supper of Practical Jokes" will be produced in New York next month by George H. Lennan and there is little doubt that it will find in America the same success that it had in Italy and in Paris.

The scene of "La Cena delle Beffe" is laid in Florence in the time of Lorenzo the Magnificent. It is a wonderful historical evocation with a splendid background in which the spirit of the Italian Renaissance appears in most vivid colors. The author seems to have found again the soul of the men of that time: they are strong and cruel, sensuous and hypocritical, sharp, astute, revengeful.

"Le Beffe," the practical jokes played by those Florentines of the Renaissance are of the most cruel nature. An habitual victim of them is Giannetto Malesini, weak and cowardly but sharp-witted and astute. He describes himself to his friend Ornaquinci in these words:

I am a coward, and angered even at sight  
Of other's courage, and their easy anger . . .  
Nor have I left in me a virtue, even  
Of self-defense. My mind alone upholds  
Me! Ah but that is tempered as a fine  
Sword blade!

Giannetto has been most cruelly tormented, for pure wickedness, by Neri Chiaramontesi and his brother Gabriello. These two are solid adversaries: agile, noisy, vigorous, completely devoid of scruples and pity. They are brutes, without a glimmer of humane feelings. Giannetto is their plaything and he relates the story of their bullying:

These brothers — both — were once my playfellows  
In all my childish games; companions, too,  
In riper sports of youth . . . of frolic full.  
The two are strong as lions;  
and I  
Have often looked on them in wonderment.  
Yet, while spellbound in presence of their strength  
It was their wont to seize me forcibly . . .  
Maul, scratch, rend, tear me with their paws—their claws,  
And others noting it said:  
"Courage! Come!  
Be brave! Turn on them! Be a man! Take heart!"

E'en the two brothers, laughing,  
egged me on;  
Yet, raised I but a finger in de-  
fense,  
They, roaring, caught me,  
twisted, crushed my arms . . .  
Oh, what a torture thus to live a  
life  
Of quaking . . . all because of  
my own fears!

But Giannetto must have his revenge which he imagines subtle and becomes unspeakably cruel. Neri is led to kill his brother Gabriello and becomes a raving maniac. The comedy ends in drama; a terrifying drama of that terrifying period. The dagger follows the amorous discourse as hatred follows love and mixes with a love as violent as almost to approach hatred.

Those Florentines of the Renaissance were lovers of practical jokes. One "beffa" might consist of putting a man into a sack and plunging him repeatedly into the Arno, another of shutting up a good husband and father, letting it be known that he is dead, even to celebrate his funeral, see that his wife remarries and then release him and send him home and laugh at what happens. Neri Chiaramontesi says of these jokes:

"The art of jesting is a great one. I  
Have studied it with Burchi-  
ello, well!  
And when I practice it, I use,  
as suits  
Me best, satire or scoffing.  
Should these not  
Suffice, my hands; when hands  
are not enough  
I beat with sticks."

### A Tribute to America From Luigi Luzzatti

An opinion on the United States has been given by Luigi Luzzatti, one of the ablest economists of Italy, in answer to a request made by a committee of distinguished American women. These women asked him to give an idealistic interpretation of the spirit which has animated the people of the United States from the time of their origin as European emigrants fleeing from religious persecution down to the present day. In his answer Mr. Luzzatti refutes the sinister insinuations usually made against the United States by foreigners which accuse them of being interested in business and gain alone. In his answer to the women of America he sees only the greatness, the love of liberty, which has been their ideal ever.

His vision of America is as follows:

"Born in a divine heart through which they grow greater now in the throb of the human heart.

"Born to deliver themselves from the multifarious religious tyrannies of Europe, to-day they rise to save Europe from military tyranny.

"At the dawn of their marvelous life God's liberty shone as crown of sacrifice and redemption; at midday they harvest an immortal reward the privilege of delivering oppressed nations.

## Frescoes of Giandomenico Tiepolo Damaged by Austrian Guns

Frescoes of Giandomenico Tiepolo, son of the famous Giambattista Tiepolo, were badly damaged by Austrian guns in the last advance of the Austrians which brought them to the Piave. The frescoes adorned the walls and vaulted roof of the church at the little village of Mielo, which is between Treviso and San Dona Piave. The wave of invaders which threatened to destroy the richness and beauty of the Venetian plain and Venice itself, arrived as far as Mielo, and then was stopped, definitely, forever.

At Mielo the marks of battle have been left especially on the church and its tower. Many grenades hit the roof of the church and struck the apses where most of the frescoes were. Artillery shot of medium calibre hit the roof exactly above the fresco of the Baptism of Christ. None of the frescoes which were hit directly were damaged by the shock of the explosion which cracked bits of the plaster. The damage done was not very serious because most of the frescoes served the general outlines of the work, but if immediate steps had not been taken the damage might have become irreparable. The Committee at Venice for the

Preservation of Monuments at once undertook the work of protecting the frescoes and of transporting them to a place of safety.

The frescoes were painted by Giandomenico Tiepolo in 1758, and are noted for their bright tints and perfect technique, of which the older Tiepolo was a master. Giandomenico worked with his father in Venice and many other cities in Italy and Spain and so learned the art directly from him.

The works at Mielo are some of the finest specimens of his art. In the center of the vaulted roof of the church is a fresco of the Baptism of Christ. Above the human figures there is a gentle, light curve of angels which blends with the deep sky in the background. The light effects, the shadows, the anatomy and the expressions of the faces are such to recall vividly to mind the models of his father. Around the central fresco there are eight tablets in "Chiaro-scuro" which represent the four Evangelists, alternated with frescoes of the four principal virtues. In these he has shown his mastery over all the nuances and shadings which shadow and light can give.

## To Facilitate Italian Immigration Here

### Labor Commission from that Country Gives Assurance of Labor Stability There

Representatives of "The Italian Labor Union," a national organization of laborers in Italy which has given its whole-hearted support to the war, arrived recently as guests of the American Federation of Labor in return for the visit which Mr. Gompers and other members of the American Federation of Labor paid to Italy recently. The purpose of the visit is to bind more closely the Italian and American labor unions by facilitating an exchange of ideas and methods of organization and to study problems of emigration. The visiting delegation has at its head Mr. Alceste De Ambris, member of the Italian House of Deputies, and the other members are: Carlo Bazzi, Secretary of the Labor Union of Ravenna; Amibore De Ambris, Metallurgical Union; Ettore Cuzzani, Secretary Coop. Transportation of Bologna; Antelmo Pedrini, Vice-Secretary, Transport Workers, Bologna; Silvano Pasulo, Representative of Port Workers of Italy; Vico Fiacchi, Representative of Central Labor Union of Carrara; Romolo Sabbatini, Secretary of Labor Chamber of Rome; V. P. Roman, Civ. Org., Member of City Council of Rome and vicinity.

Emigration of Italian labor after the war will be a necessity, according to Mr. De Ambris, and part of the function of the delegation is to help this emigration. "Italy has an excess of 300,000 births over deaths annually," he

said, "and these 300,000 must find an outlet. Industry in Italy has advanced, and is making ever-increased demands on labor but the increase is not in proportion to the supply. Italy has an excess of labor, and it would benefit both the United States and Italy if this labor could be induced or would choose to come here.

"The United States is perhaps the best country which our emigrants could come to. Here they mingle readily with the population, they acquire its standard of civilization, and become a real factor in the new nation which they have adopted. Of all the emigrants who return to Italy those who return from the United States are those who have reaped the greatest benefits."

The position of the laborer in Italy has greatly improved in the past decade, according to Mr. De Ambris. Working conditions and wages have increased, not only because of the abnormal production necessitated by the war, but for natural causes. The greatest advances have been made by the agricultural workers. "The Union of Agricultural Workers is the most advanced not only in Italy, but perhaps in the whole world," Mr. De Ambris said. "It has a large membership, and one of its most radical laws is the enforcement of the six-hour day. Other unions in Italy have adopted the eight-hour day, but the agricultural

workers are the only ones with six-hour day."

Co-operative societies have made great strides in Italy, and Mr. De Ambris reports especial progress in co-operative producing societies. In these the laborers themselves own the tools of production and share in the profits of their labors.

Bolshevist tendencies in Italy need not be feared, is the assurance of Mr. De Ambris. There is a small Bolshevik element, but it is neither strong nor active. "Italy is on the road to great industrial development," he predicts, "and this development will not be hindered by revolutionary uprisings. On the whole, the labor party in Italy is well satisfied with its condition, and has reason to be. Not only wages, but the actual earning power of the dollar, have increased. Although industry in Italy is entering an era of aggrandizement, this development cannot yet absorb Italy's huge labor reserve. Emigration must take care of this."

"There need be no fear that the excess labor reserve will attempt to stay in Italy and so crowd the labor market," he declares. "The Italian laborer is active and energetic and ever eager to conquer new fields. With the return of normal conditions," he predicted, "there will gain be a large number desirous of trying its fortune in foreign fields. This will work to the

benefit of the individual who emigrates, to the country to which he is going (for the Italian laborer is famed for his industrious, honest, alert qualities), and to the Italian laborer who remains in Italy. Those who remain in Italy will have work at good wages and under good working conditions, and Bolshevism will go unheeded."

The delegates wish to spread among the American laborers the truth about Italy's aspirations on the Adriatic. They wish to assure American labor that Italy's aspirations are not imperialistic; that the labor party in Italy is in favor of them; that it is vital to the national integrity of Italy that the territories on the Adriatic which she claims as part of Italy be restored to her. Mr. De Ambris said that the Italian labor party is opposed to imperialistic pretensions, and its endorsement of Italy's program in the Adriatic is proof that it is not imperialistic.

The most difficult problem which Italy is facing at present, according to Mr. De Ambris, is that of food. There is not enough food in Italy to feed the population, and it is only by the establishment of extreme rations that the nation has been enabled to manage at all. In Milan, where Mr. De Ambris comes from, the ration for meat allows less than two pounds per person a month, and there are practically no fats, oils, butter, or milk.

## **Italy Plans to Protect Labor Against Unemployment**

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Many of the greatest industrial chiefs in Italy assembled recently in Rome, at the invitation of Mr. Pantano, president of the sub-commission on Economics for reconstruction, to discuss the most immediate problems which faced Italy on the cessation of hostilities. Representatives of the government, the Minister of Arms, Ammunition and Aviation, the Ministers of War, Transportation and Industry, and the Director General of Railroads were also present.

Attention was focused especially on the problem of transforming as quickly as possible, and eventually with state aid, Italian industries employed in war work to peace industries. The necessity of providing against the great unemployment which would result from the immediate stoppage of factories engaged in war work resulted in the adoption of a resolution for the protection of labor. The resolution asks the government to make a survey of the public works it will need to be done at once and that it assign these works to factories now doing war work on the basis of the number of persons employed. Furthermore it asks the government to see that a supply of coal sufficient to cover demands of Italian factories be available so that there need be no unemployment because of lack of fuel.

## **New Railroad Line, Rome—Constantinople Direct, Planned**

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A plan for the building of trans-balkan railroad which would connect Italy directly with the East by a system of ferries across the Strait of Otranto which is at the heel of Italy and forms the outlet of the Adriatic into the Mediterranean Sea, has been submitted by Mr. G. Bonomo, an Italian engineer, and published by the Italian Institute for Commercial and Colonial Expansion.

Italy has always advocated the building of a railroad direct from Constantinople, through Salonika to Avalona, for her own commercial expansion and for the unity of the Balkans, but the neighboring nations have always opposed it. At the conclusion of peace it was expected that the Balkan states will be eager to adopt a plan which will prove so beneficial to them.

Such a railroad would shorten the distance between the principal commercial and industrial centers in Italy and Balkan cities by several hundred miles. From Avalona on the Balkan side to Otranto on the Italian side, a ferry would have to be established to make the line from the Balkans to Italy complete. Over this route the distance from Rome to Constantinople could be traversed in forty-eight hours, and would be decreased from 1,900 miles, the present length of the trip via Cervignano, to 1,200 miles, the length over the new proposed line via Avalona.

## Italy's Organization for the Treatment of "Shell-Shock"

Shell-shock, or rather, war-shock, has been the center of exhaustive study and research work in Italy and great advance in the knowledge of its treatment, causes, and prevention has been reported by Sante Naccarati, M.D., who recently returned from Italy after having spent a year with the Italian Medical Corps at the front. Dr. Naccarati is an Italian physician who is specialized in neuropsychiatry. Because of his first-hand experience with hundreds of cases of shell-shock, and his excellent record of service while abroad, he has been asked by the Neurologic Institute of New York to give a course in war psycho-neurosis for post graduates.

### First-Line Hospitals for "Shell-Shock"

The neuropsychiatric service in the Italian army is the subject of an article by Dr. Naccarati which appeared in the November issue of the *Journal of the American Medical Association*. Italy was the first country, according to Dr. Naccarati, to establish front-line hospitals for the treatment of shell-shock. This was an exceedingly important innovation, as experience has proved that immediate treatment of the milder forms of shell-shock in these front-line hospitals has prevented many cases from becoming chronic. In cases of this kind, the sooner a counter-stimulation is applied, the better, and the greater are the probabilities for complete and permanent re-

covery. Before the establishment of hospitals right behind the front lines, victims had to wait weeks before they received proper treatment, and this delay caused many cases to become chronic and incurable.

Of this service, Dr. Naccarati writes, "The Neuropsychiatric Service is one of the best services in the Italian army. Italy, having entered the world war nine months after the other allies, had time enough to study all the problems connected with the medical organization and was in a position to avail herself of the experiences of the other nations. Although in France the Neuropsychiatric Service as a special unit was organized a long time after the war broke out, in Italy it started with the war. Italy led the other nations in creating the so-called advanced sections, which are first-line hospitals or sections of field hospitals where patients are first taken for diagnosis, distribution and eventual treatment. These advanced sections of the armies originated in Italy in September, 1915, three and one-half months after Italy declared war, after a short experimental period."

In France a committee composed of Drs. Chaslin, Colin and Truelle, was appointed to study different systems of neuropsychiatric service and the committee recommended the adoption of the Italian system of first-line service.

### Treatment of Patients

The advanced sections for the

treatment of psycho-neurosis at times are merely wards of field hospitals and in some sections are separate hospitals with beds ranging from ten to 150. The patients are here examined, the mild cases are kept there and treated, and the serious ones are sent at once to the nearest center, located in the rear of every army. These centers "occupy large modern hospitals," writes Dr. Naccarati, "where patients sent from the advanced neuro-psychiatric section are received and submitted to a more accurate and rigorous examination. Here those functional cases, emotive, confused, etc. which, if transferred directly to reserve hospitals outside the war zone, as it was customary at the beginning, would become chronic, are treated until the patients are fit for service again. Those suspected of malingering are kept under strict observation until they are exposed or found mentally affected."

Great praise is paid by Dr. Naccarati to Dr. Joseph Collins, director of the American Medical Department of the American Red Cross in Rome, for his aid and interest in neurological cases. The American Red Cross contributed generously in supplying medical and surgical material to a distribution center for all psychopaths from the war zone recently located at Reggio Emilia. This center has a total capacity of 1,600 beds.

#### Re-education of Victims

The establishment of occupational classes for neurologic patients was an innovation begun in Milan. Re-education and vocational training for those in-

capacitated in the war by loss of a limb or part of a limb figures largely in the rehabilitation programs of most countries but few have given consideration to the re-education of neurologic patients. Milan was the first to adopt a plan for their training. Dr. Naccarati says of the "These are by no means regular schools for re-education. The scope is to furnish those patients who are able to do something during their period of treatment with a light occupation which without tiring them, keeps them psychically active. For those patients who have either organic or functional disorders, manual work, convenient and chosen and applied, is a wonderful therapeutic procedure, either from the point of view of motor re-education of the nervous and muscular system, from the point of view of psychic re-education of will. Many functional diseases of the nervous system . . . working is a splendid stimulus to awaken and keep alive the individual energies and activities which otherwise would be lost forever, and any later attempt at re-education would prove either useless or a most difficult task."

Furthermore Dr. Naccarati reports that an organization has been established in Rome for the purpose of assisting in every possible manner soldiers who have cerebral, spinal and peripheral nerve lesions, and especially those who because of unusual and violent emotions suffered in battle became functionally mutilated, that is, those who have become invalids of nerves, sight, hearing, speech and of the mind.

### Percentage of Recoveries

Italy has treated in its neurotic reserve hospitals about 20,000 patients yearly, exclusive of those successfully treated in the stations and centers of the army. Bianchi, consulting neurologist and psychiatrist of the Second Army, reports that of a

hundred patients sent to his department, 50 per cent were able to return to service after a short period of treatment; of the remaining 50 per cent one third had to be sent to psychopathic hospitals, but only one-half of these were declared insane and ultimately sent to an asylum.

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### Evil Effects of German Investments in Italy

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The harm which the United States will have it in her power to inflict after the war, because of her financial interests in foreign countries, is illustrated by Luigi Criscuolo in an article in the "Independent," by citing the case of Italy and the effects of German investments. He argues that the United States should not follow Germany's method, which is to dominate the country first in the fields of finance, then in politics and so pave the way for political domination.

Italy's statesmen who aimed to make her again a great power in the Mediterranean, at first looked with favor on the great flow of German capital which poured into the country and helped develop her industries, railways, hydro-electric plants, and banking institutions. "Soon," writes Mr. Criscuolo, "they began to realize that with financial control existing, political domination was but a step away, so after the Germans had secured

control of a great part of Italy's financial and industrial enterprises they began to attempt to secure control of legislators and even ministers. The Italian people were friendly with German financial interests so long as they confined themselves to finance; the moment they saw the yoke of political domination held over them they began to rebel. . . . Those statesmen who wisely guided the destinies of Italy were quick to unshackle their people from German economic bondage."

What Germany tried to do in Italy, the United States must not permit herself to be tempted to try in the small nations of Europe which will need financial aid, according to Mr. Criscuolo. Germany's methods employed in Italy aimed toward financial despotism. He believes the United States should follow a policy of benevolent economic leadership.

## **Appeal for Victims of Austrian Barbarity**

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Italian newspapers in the United States have launched an appeal to Americans of Italian origin to come to the help of their brothers in the invaded and Irredentist provinces, now restored to Italy, who are in great need of food, clothing and shelter.

The Austrian armies in their retreat pillaged and plundered all along the line. They ransacked villages, burnt churches and houses, so that those who are now returning from exile to their native villages find only ruins.

In the region beyond the border, after four years of war and of fierce persecution, the condition of the Italians is reported as pitiful. The people were taken and thrown violently into concentration camps; men were taken to the trenches. Italian soldiers who liberated these people, horror-struck at their starving condition, shared their bread with them. Italy, despite the extreme scarcity of food at home, made further sacrifices that part of her rations might be sent to her Irredentist brothers. The need for foodstuffs is so urgent that Caproni aeroplanes and dirigibles have been used to transport supplies to the starving people for fear that, if ordinary channels of communication were used, relief would reach them too late.

The Italian Army has accomplished its military work and it now finds before it a colossal task of reconstruction for which vast resources are necessary.

Italy must help millions of persons weakened from suffering and unnerved by the regime of terror of the Austrian Government.

The response from Americans of Italian origin to the plea from the populations of the Trentino, Venetia and the Adriatic has been generous, but Americans of all origins are invited to contribute. Every American contribution for Trieste, for Fiume, for Zara, will be considered a proof of the fraternity which exists between Italy and the United States. Now that actual fighting has ceased, the injustice and violence done by the enemy must be remedied by the human work of reconstruction. Italy asks America to collaborate with her in the great work she has undertaken in the now redeemed provinces.

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## **Prizes for Wheat Growing in Italy**

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Contests for the production of wheat of pure quality have been announced by the Italian Minister of Agriculture. All entrants must cultivate land in the Roman Campagna and the kinds of wheat to be grown must be selected from those announced by the Minister which grow most favorably in the district. Contestants, to be eligible to the prizes must raise at least 20,000 pounds of wheat, of which at least half must be good for seed. The prizes offered are \$400, \$300, \$240, \$200, \$160 and \$100.

## Ricter Rations Established in Italy—On Basis of About One Pound of Food a Day

New rations allowing little more than thirteen pounds of rationed food per month, in addition to nine ounces of bread per day, have been established in Italy. This means that the people of Italy are living on about fifteen ounces of food per day—less than half a pound—in addition to nine ounces of bread, and whatever fruit and vegetables they can get. The allotment of all kinds of meat per person totals only one and a half pounds per month. In addition to being extremely small, the allotment is often hard to obtain. On meat days long lines

of persons awaiting their turn to receive their allotment form outside the meat shops. The rations have been established on the following basis:

Commodity	Pound per month
Sugar .....	.7
Rice .....	4.4
Butter .....	.44
Spaghetti, macaroni, noodles, etc. ....	2.2
Corn Meal .....	2.2
Cheese .....	.528
Oil .....	.44
Lard .....	.66
Freshly killed meat...	.550
Frozen meat .....	1.00

## Time to Spend Thirty Millions on Public Works

Public works involving an expenditure of \$30,000,000 will be begun at once by the City of Rome, so as to give employment to those formerly in war industries. Wherever possible, factories engaged in war work will be transformed so as to manufacture building material and road supplies and equipment. The Mayor of the city has asked that the Bank for Loans and Deposits advance the capital needed for the municipal work at a rate of 5%. Schools, hospitals and charitable institutions will be among the buildings to be constructed.

## Scarcity of Milk Reduces Rations in Italy

Milk rations effective during the month of November in Turin, Italy, allowed only one-half a pint of milk per person per day, and a maximum of a quart and a half for families of more than six persons. Cafes and bars will not be allowed to use any fresh milk, but will have to use condensed or otherwise preserved milk. Special milk rations are allowed to invalids and children, but to obtain these rations it is necessary to own special licenses, which must be presented to the milk dealer.

### **Company for Cultivation of Farms in Italy**

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An Italian agricultural company formed to cultivate unused land, at a recent meeting voted to increase its capital from \$6,000,000 to \$12,000,000. The company was organized in 1905 and its activities have been multiplying so rapidly that it was found necessary to double its capital.

One of the aims of the company is to purchase vast tracts of land, cultivate them, reclaim and irrigate them when necessary and then sell them in small lots to individual farmers. The sales made to date by the company are as follows:

	No.
Farms of more than 2,500 acres ....	3
Farms from 1,250 to 2,500 acres ....	3
Farms from 250 to 1,250 acres ....	20
Farms from 25 to 250 acres ....	118
Farms from 12 to 25 acres ....	84
Farms less than 12 acres.....	704

The company finances and manages works of reconstruction, reclaiming of waste lands, cultivation of lands, scientific preparation of the soil, irrigation, and in general prepares farms so that the peasants will find it profitable to work them. When ready, the farms are then sold at a profit or rented. The company also advances money to co-operative agricultural societies and small companies formed for agricultural production. It helps its leasees or those who have purchased land to buy farming implements, fertilizers, building material, seed, and other things needed in the cultivation of the soil.

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The raising of live-stock is one of the branch functions of the company. For this purpose it has acquired extensive lands in Sardinia.

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### **Italian Chambers of Commerce to be Controlled by Government**

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Italian Chambers of Commerce abroad will hereafter be under government supervision in accordance with a decree issued by the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. The decree aims to make all Italian Chambers of Commerce devoted to the protection of Italian industry and commerce.

The decree authorizes diplomatic and consular agents abroad to act directly or through commercial agents on the administrative boards of the Italian Chambers of Commerce in the respective districts. Members must all be Italians, and associate organizations must be composed exclusively of Italians. The constitutions of the chambers must be submitted to the Ministry of Industry for approval. Recognition of any Chamber of Commerce may be revoked if an act contrary to the interests of Italian trade and industry or a violation of the provisions in the Constitution is committed.

Subsidies to help defray the expense of up-keep will be paid by the Italian government. Chambers of Commerce abroad in proportion to their importance.

## “White-Coal” the Force of Italy of the Future

“White-coal” has been the salvation of Italian industry and commerce in the past, and “White-coal” will form the foundation for her development and industrial growth in the future. “White-coal,” though it may sound mysterious, is really an Italian expression for aer-power.

Italy has little or no coal of her own. During the past decades she had to struggle on what she could import and purchase abroad. This made coal very expensive, and its use in her factories would not permit her manufacturers to compete with those abroad. The cost of power for running their plants made it necessary for them to demand higher prices for their articles than those demanded by their competitors in other countries. But twenty years ago new methods of harnessing water-power for generating electricity were discovered, and a new stimulus was given to Italian industry.

The water-power at the disposal of Italy makes her one of the rich nations in Europe. This source of natural wealth which Nature, perhaps in compensation for the lack of coal, has given Italy is inexhaustible. The Alps and Apennines, with their innumerable streams furrowing through Italy, have given to Italian engineering and electrical genius the means of contributing to the progress and development of their country. From the beginning of the twentieth century they have achieved results which may justly be called great奇迹. Italy has been especially favored, because the Italian versant

of the Alps is almost entirely of granite, therefore it has great density and impermeability, and is especially steep. The rainfall on the Italian versant is more abundant than on the others.

With the technical knowledge at present available the position of carboniferous countries and those possessing “white-coal” has been reversed. In the former the supply of coal available is diminishing day by day. There is a constant drain on a fixed capital which some day will be exhausted. In the latter energy is produced without consuming the source; water renews itself and will always continue to do so, thus leaving the capital intact while drawing on an income which probably, with improved methods of utilization, will continue to increase.

Various estimates have been made as to the amount of power Italy could derive from her streams and waterfalls. The minimum estimate places it at 4,000,000 and the maximum at 8,000,000.

According to very recent statistics compiled for the Ministry of Agriculture, the water-power of Italy amounts to 5,000,000 horsepower, distributed as follows:

Water Courses	H.P.
Emptying into the Ligurian Sea.....	123,200
Emptying into the Tyrrhenian Sea....	936,900
Sicilian water courses.....	45,000
Emptying into the Ionian Sea.....	195,500
Emptying into the Adriatic south of the Po .....	553,100
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Total .....	1,853,700
Left tributaries of the Po.....	774,000
Other water courses.....	2,372,300
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Total horsepower .....	5,000,000

Recent investigations by an expert, based on the minimum of 4,000,000 horsepower, compared

with the endowment of water-power of other nations, have given the following results:

Country	Available	Utilized	Per- centage of Utili- zation
United States.....	28,100	7,000	24.9
Canada .....	8,094	1,700	21.0
France .....	5,587	650	11.6
Norway .....	5,500	1,120	20.4
Spain .....	5,000	440	8.8
Sweden .....	4,500	704	15.6
Italy .....	4,000	976	24.0
Switzerland .....	2,000	511	25.5
Germany .....	1,425	618	43.4
England .....	963	080	8.3

Considering the respective areas of these countries, we have the following:

Country	Available	H.P. per sq. mile of area	Utilized
United States.....	9.30		2.31
Canada .....	8.74		1.83
France .....	27.00		3.14
Norway .....	44.30		9.02
Spain .....	26.00		4.08
Sweden .....	26.00		4.08
Italy .....	43.00		10.70
Switzerland .....	125.00		32.00
Germany .....	6.80		2.96
England .....	10.90		0.91

Thus we find that although Italy occupies only seventh place among the ten countries taken under consideration as regards available hydraulic energy, she stands fourth in the amount of energy utilized. In the percentage of utilization, she almost equals Switzerland and the United States, where the amount utilized is about one-fourth of the amount available.

Italy possesses hydraulic power from north to south. Its economic value is therefore greater than if it were all centered in one section. Many important centers, none of which owe their greatness to their water-power, are fortunately near enough to powerful streams to enable them to make use of them. The extremely rapid currents of most of these streams facilitates their utilization.

If we take the value of the total population as 100, and the same

figure as the total value of the water-power of the country, the proportionate distribution would be as follows:

Population	Wat. pow. over 100.0
Northern Italy.....	36.41
Central Italy.....	24.39
Southern Italy.....	25.89
Sicily .....	10.88
Sardinia .....	2.43
	100.00
	100.00

The Italian Government early realized the many advantages to be derived from her water-power, and liberal legislation was passed favoring organizations for the transmission of power. Large power plants established in Italy were enabled to compete with the best establishments in other countries not only in their modern methods of operation but also in the importance of the work accomplished, the power of the machinery used, the amount of energy produced and the extent of the territory covered.

The first plant erected in Italy for the transmission of electric power in 1892, made use of the famous Falls of Tivoli, near Rome. The first successful attempt resulted in the transmission of 2,000 horse-power to a distance of sixteen miles. The power works of Pandino, on the Adda, were completed six years later, making possible the transmission of 13,000 horse-power to Milan, twenty-two miles distant. In 1909 the Adamello Company, with a waterfall of 600 yards in Valcamonica, generating a current of 60,000 volts, delivered 20,000 horse-power at a distance of 70 miles, and Tirano, with 40,000 volt, transmitted 20,000 horse-power to Milan on a line of 95 miles. Marvelous progress was made year by year, not only in Northern Italy, but also in the central and southern sections of the country, until at present

the valleys of the Alps and Apennines power plants are under consideration or in operation.

In 1898 the generation of electrical energy amounted to 86,750 watts; in the succeeding ten years it was increased another 435,000, so that at the end of 1908 Italian industry had 511,000 horsepower available, an amazing increase of 665 per cent.

Electric power plants necessarily developed; from 2,286 in 1899 their number increased to 6,883 in 1911 (this excludes plants no longer in operation). According to the census of 1911, electrical power is utilized by more than 50 per cent. of Italian industries, another 20 per cent. uses hydraulic power and the remaining 20 per cent. thermic power, which latter, of course, will be reduced and replaced in time.

Government publications, and particularly reports of the Ministry of Finance on public waters, indicate that the hydraulic energy in concession is as follows:

1880.....	135,000 H.P.
1900.....	250,889 "
1910.....	897,464 "
1914.....	1,022,960 "

Thus from 1880 to 1914 more than a million horse-power was available.

The European War, with all the uncertainty and difficulties it brought, helped to stimulate the expectation of her "white-coal" and made the people realize the advantages to be derived from this inexhaustible source of wealth. Up to the present time hydraulic power plants had been planned and operated for the one purpose, of generating electric power, with little or no consideration of any further possibilities or advantages to be derived from these same water courses.

To-day, chiefly because of the war and the experience gained through the new difficulties encountered, Italy is entering upon an entirely new field of activity, which undoubtedly will have its beneficial results—to what extent it is as yet difficult to determine. This new and very important line of activity is the systematic co-ordination of all the possible uses to which water-power may be put, based on an understanding of economics.

A new, vast, magnificent project demands development, a project the realization of which will be due chiefly to an important reform instituted by a decree of November 26, 1916, embodying an organized plan for the regulation of the country's water courses which undoubtedly will lead to the full utilization of Italy's hydraulic energy.

By this decree a Special Superior Council of Waters was established, composed of scientists and competent technical experts, to whom every proposed project is to be submitted for investigation and approval, thereby obviating previous serious inconveniences which complicated and delayed not a little the operation of even the most useful and important enterprises.

This Council of Waters, which entered upon its duties in February, 1917, in an interesting report of its first year's efforts, shows how much practical work already has been accomplished in such a short space of time, while previously, even after several years' effort, the practical results attained had been small.

Enterprising and competent experts, of which, fortunately, there are many in Italy, are to-day considering further improvements in methods of application. One of the most important improvements made is undoubtedly the establishment of

mountain reservoirs to regulate the volume of streams, thus insuring their potentiality during the dry season and protecting the land from sudden overflow.

The adequate development of her water-power will give Italy not only the advantage of reduced coal importation for her railroads and her agricultural and metallurgic industries, but also reduce the importation of other products which can be manufactured by electrical means.

Studies made by experts have determined that in a period of ten years it would be possible to substitute 1,000,000 horse-power for coal at a saving of about 3,500,000 tons and an annual increase on the credit side of Italy's trade balance of \$20,000,000, based on pre-war prices. In the same period it would be further possible to utilize another 1,000,000 horse-power toward the application of new methods, representing a more direct creation of wealth; another 400,000 horse-power, employed in the production of azotized substances, would reduce the importation of grain by 375,000,000 lbs.

yearly at an annual saving of \$18,000,000 lire; 100,000 horse-power employed in utilizing the iron carbonates and hematites in the Alps (George Ansaldo & Company, of Genoa, already have initiated the exploitation of the magnetized iron deposits at Coguè, in the valley of Aosta, estimated as holding about 10,000,000 tons of 55 per cent. iron ore), would effect a reduction of about 65,000 tons in the importation of iron at a corresponding saving of \$7,800,000 in gold. With other 130,000 horse-power it would be possible to obtain 120,000 tons of pig iron from pyrite cinders, adding a further credit of \$2,600,000 to the yearly balance. Finally, other 100,000 horse-power would secure zinc to the value of \$8,000,000 (the zinc ore mined in Italy amounts to 150,000 tons yearly, which is exported for smelting, and obliges Italy to import this metal for her own needs).

If the extraordinary prices caused by the war were taken into account the above advantages would in the aggregate exceed several hundred millions of dollars.

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## **Institute for Scientific Research in Milan**

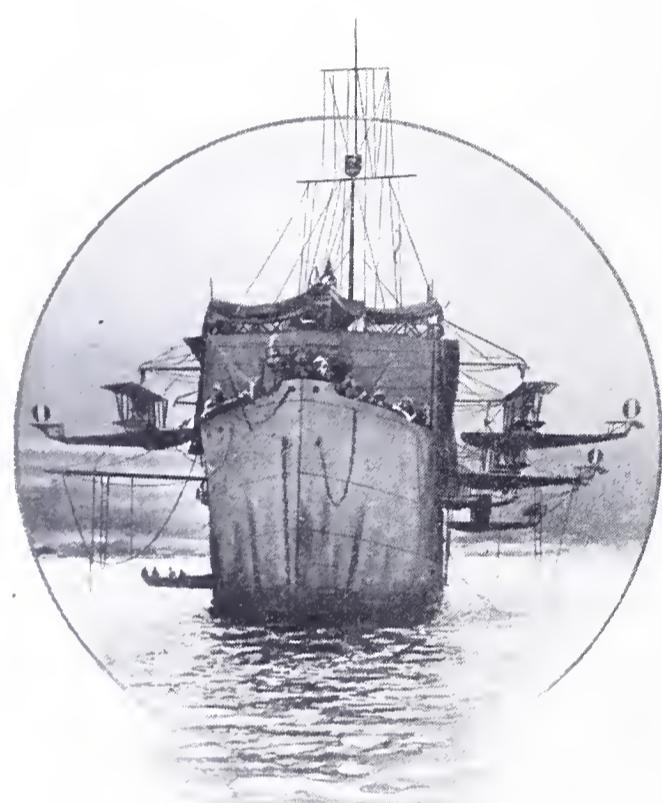
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An Institute for Scientific-Technical Research for problems connected with iron and steel manufacture is being established by the Ernesto Breda Company of Milan. This is one of the first instances in Italy of the linking together of a scientific institute with an industrial concern. In Germany such institutes were exceedingly common, and to them is attributed in great measure Germany's success in industry. At the Breda plant in Milan, new scientific theories and methods formulated in the institute

for research will be tried out in the plants. The institute will offer to young men desirous of learning the iron and steel industry an opportunity of learning not only the science of metallurgy but also its practical application.

The establishment of the Institute at the Ernesto Breda plant in Milan came in response to an appeal for the establishment of such institutes issued by the Scientific Technical National Committee for Italy.

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